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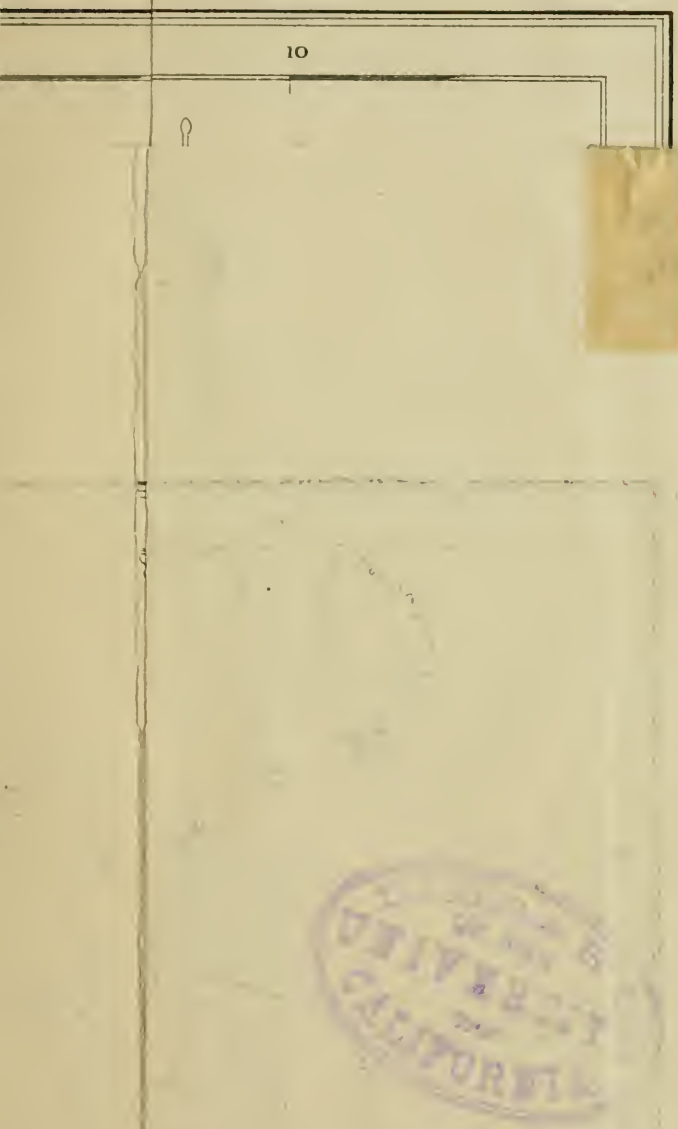

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MAPA
FISICO Y POLITICO
DE LOS E.E.U.U. DE
VENEZUELA
MAR DE LAS ANTILLAS
TERRITORIO COLON
TERRITORIO DELTA AMACURO
GOLFO DE MARACAIBO
LAGO DE MARACAIBO
ESTADO LARA
ESTADO MIRANDA
ESTADO BERMUDEZ
GRAN SABANA DEL ORINOCO
ESTADO LOS ANDES
ESTADO ZAMORA
ESTADO GUZMAN BLANCO
ESTADO APURE
ESTADO BOLIVAR
TERRITORIO AMACURO
TERRITORIO CAICARA
TERRITORIO ALTO ORINOCO
TERRITORIO YURUARI
TERRITORIO AMAZONAS
IMPERIO DEL BRASIL
GUAYANA INGLESA
SIGNOS
ESCALA
Long Oeste del Meridiano de Caracas
Long Oeste del Meridiano de Cayena

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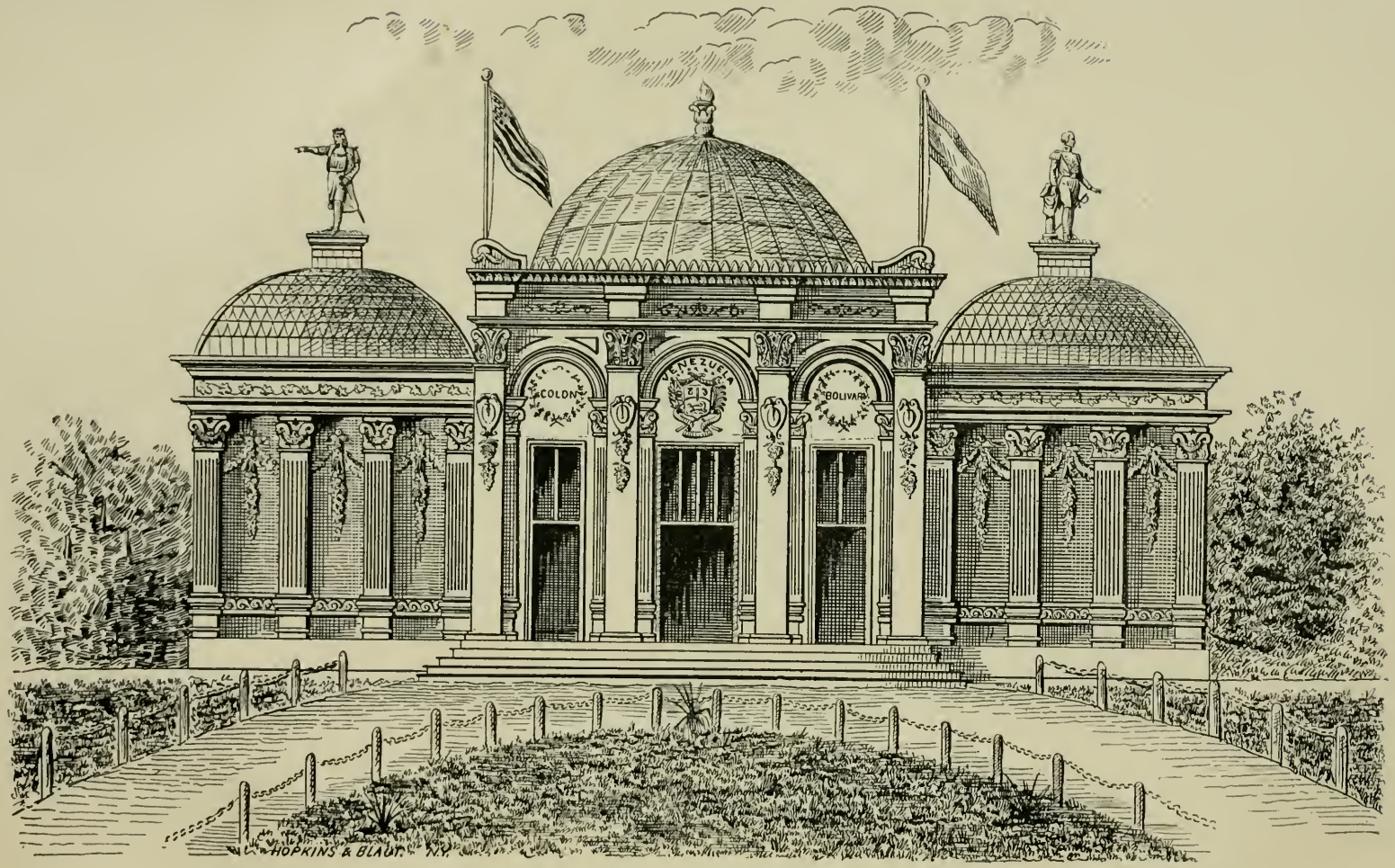

Venezuela Building at Jackson Park, World's Columbian Exhibition.

World's Columbian Exposition

AT CHICAGO.

Venezuela. Ministerio de relaciones exteriores

THE

UNITED STATES OF VENEZUELA

IN

1893.

PUBLISHED BY ORDER OF THE

GOVERNMENT OF VENEZUELA.

NEW YORK.

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OFFICIAL DOCUMENTS.

UNITED STATES OF VENEZUELA, MINISTRY OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS, DIRECTION OF FOREIGN PUBLIC LAW, CARACAS, *November*, 7, 1892.

RESOLVED:

As the day is approaching on which the great international Contest to which the North American Union has convened all other nations of the globe, will be opened in the city of Chicago; and whereas this notable celebration, the purpose of which is to glorify the Discovery of America, cannot be a subject of indifference to Venezuela, the nation of the continent which first received the civilizing benefits of that great event; and whereas also the period of war through which the Republic has been passing does not allow it to bring forward the elements which would make it appear as a productive soil amongst the other competing States, the Chief of the Executive Power has resolved to name a Commission composed of Doctor Manuel Vicente Toledo and Señor J. M. Larralde in order to represent the country in the said universal Contest.

At the solemn inauguration of the Exhibition the Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of the Republic in Washington will preside *ad honorem* the representatives of Venezuela. And in order that this Resolution may procure practical results for the country, the two persons designated as representatives aforesaid will transmit periodically to the Government detailed reports concerning everything they may observe in the Exhibition which may be worthy of being utilized to the advantage of the Republic from a scientific, artistic, or industrial point of view.

During the period which will elapse before the inauguration of the great Contest, the Commissioners are to study the manner of giving to the duties entrusted to them all required importance,

for which purpose they will forward in due course to this office the plan of action which examination of the subject will suggest to them.

Let this be communicated and published.

For the National Executive,

P. EZEQUIEL ROJAS.

UNITED STATES OF VENEZUELA, MINISTRY OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS, DIRECTION OF FOREIGN PUBLIC LAW, CARACAS, *December* 12, 1892.

RESOLVED:

By order of the Chief of the National Executive Power, Señor Jacinto Lopez is named a member of the Commission which is to represent Venezuela at the Universal Exhibition of Chicago, and which was created by a Resolution of this same Department on the 7th day of November last.

Let this be communicated and published.

For the National Executive,

P. EZEQUIEL ROJAS.

UNITED STATES OF VENEZUELA, MINISTRY OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS, DIRECTION OF FOREIGN PUBLIC LAW, CARACAS, *December* 17, 1892.

RESOLVED:

By order of the Chief of the National Executive Power, Señor José Antonio Sanchez N., is named an honorary member of the Commission which is to represent Venezuela at the Universal Exhibition of Chicago, and which was created by a Resolution of this same Department on the 7th day of November last.

Let this be communicated and published.

For the National Executive,

P. EZEQUIEL ROJAS.

UNITED STATES OF VENEZUELA, MINISTRY OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS, DIRECTION OF FOREIGN PUBLIC LAW, CARACAS, *December* 24, 1892.

RESOLVED:

By order of the Chief of the National Executive Power, Señor A. S. Baker is named an honorary member of the Commission which

is to represent Venezuela at the Universal Exhibition of Chicago, and which was created by a Resolution of this same Department on the 7th day of November last.

Let this be communicated and published.

For the National Executive,

P. EZEQUIEL ROJAS.

UNITED STATES OF VENEZUELA, MINISTRY OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS, DIRECTION OF FOREIGN PUBLIC LAW, CARACAS, *December* 26, 1892.

RESOLVED:

Taking into account the exceptional advantages which the Universal Exhibition of Chicago offers for the good reputation and credit of the countries which will take part in it; and whereas the absence of Venezuela as a producing center in this great Competition would be in all respects to be lamented, the more so that its soil, called by the conquerors *Costa Firme*, was the first of the Continent where was felt the beneficial influence of the glorious discovery the commemoration of which constitutes the primary object of this extraordinary Competition; the Chief of the Executive Power, notwithstanding the unfavorable conditions in which the Republic finds itself for taking part in it, on account of the late painful occurrences, has decided on enlarging the object of the Resolution edicted by this same Office on the 7th day of November last, and to enable Venezuela to appear in that tournament of civilization in the manner most suitable to the position it occupies among the modern States of America.

To that effect, and so that the work indispensable for the realization of this end may immediately receive the impulse which the short time available necessitates, it is resolved:

1. To name a Commission which will take measures concerning everything relative to the collection and forwarding of samples or objects which will make the Republic known in its distinct aspects, and will result, above all, in fixing general attention on the peculiar nature of its workable wealth.

2. To request through this Office from the other Departments of the Executive Power that they may contribute within their respective jurisdictions and by all means in their power to facili-

tate the labors of the Commission created by this same Resolution.

3. To urge scientific and literary Associations throughout the Republic to prepare for the Contest special works, which will give an idea of the intellectual movement of Venezuela; and

4. To contract in the United States for the construction of a building where will be exhibited everything connected with the Republic. This building is to be erected under the immediate control of the Commission representing Venezuela at the International Exhibition, and it must fulfill such conditions that when the Exhibition has been closed, it may be transferred to Caracas and placed in a suitable position, as a work of ornament as well as of usefulness.

Let this be communicated and published.

For the National Executive,

P. EZEQUIEL ROJAS.

UNITED STATES OF VENEZUELA, MINISTRY OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS, DIRECTION OF FOREIGN PUBLIC LAW, CARACAS, *December* 26, 1892.

RESOLVED:

In accordance with the Executive Resolution of this same date in which is determined the part the Republic is to take in the Universal Exhibition of Chicago, are named members of the Commission which is to collect and forward the samples or objects which Venezuela is to exhibit: Doctor Aristides Rojas, who will assume the Presidency of the Commission, Doctor Agustin Aveledo, Doctor Adolfo Ernst, Señor Francisco Davegno, Señor José Antonio Mosquera hijo, Señor Emilio J. Mauri, and Señor Francisco de Paula Alamo.

Let this be communicated and published.

For the National Executive,

P. EZEQUIEL ROJAS.

UNITED STATES OF VENEZUELA, MINISTRY OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS, DIRECTION OF FOREIGN PUBLIC LAW, No. 227, CARACAS, *December* 26, 1892.

SEÑOR DOCTOR ARISTIDES ROJAS:

As you will see by the Resolution, of which I have the honor

of enclosing an authorized copy, the Executive Power has decided that Venezuela is to take part in the Universal Exhibition of Chicago and on naming a Special Committee which is to take measures concerning everything relative to the collection and proper forwarding of the samples or objects which are to be exhibited.

The Committee named to that effect is composed of yourself, with the character of President, of Doctor Agustin Aveledo, Doctor Adolfo Ernst, Francisco Davegno, Jose Antonio Mosquera hijo, Emilio J. Mauri, and Francisco de Paula Alamo, to whom the appropriate information has already been sent.

If, as is to be expected from your patriotism, you accept the important charge which the Government entrusts to your well-known capabilities, please install the Commission as soon as possible and begin immediately the preparatory work, keeping in accordance on every point with the spirit of the above-mentioned Resolution.

Kindly acknowledge this letter.

I remain, sir, your obedient servant,

P. EZEQUIEL ROJAS.

UNITED STATES OF VENEZUELA, MINISTRY OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS, DIRECTION OF FOREIGN PUBLIC LAW, CARACAS, *January* 4, 1893.

RESOLVED:

By order of the Chief of the National Executive Power, Doctor Lucas Ramella and Señor Juan Magdaleno are named members of the Commission which is to collect Venezuelan articles for the Universal Exhibition of Chicago, and which was created by Resolution of the 26th of December, 1892.

For the National Executive,

P. EZEQUIEL ROJAS.

UNITED STATES OF VENEZUELA, MINISTRY OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS, DIRECTION OF FOREIGN PUBLIC LAW, CARACAS, *February* 18, 1893.

RESOLVED:

The Chief of the Executive Power being desirous of commemorating worthily the part which Venezuela will take in the Universal Exhibition of Chicago, has decided on creating, for that object, a medal, which will be of white metal, will have a circular

form, and will measure six centimeters in diameter. On the obverse of this medal will be engraved the bust of Christopher Columbus above two anchors inclined in opposite directions and attached in the lower part by a ribbon in the center of which will appear the name of the Discoverer. At the edge of the field of that part of the semicircle occupied by the bust, the medal will bear this legend: "IV Centenario del Descubrimiento de America." (Fourth Centenary of the Discovery of America.) On the reverse will be the different attributes of the National Escutcheon, separated so as to leave a central space, below the stars which symbolize the Federation, for the following inscription: "Venezuela en la Exposicion Universal Colombina de Chicago, 1893." (Venezuela at the Universal Columbian Exhibition of Chicago, 1893.) On the right will appear the flags and swords which constitute the quarterings of the shield; on the left, the bundle of spikes of corn; and in the lower part above the motto "Libertad" and inside of a field formed by two horns of plenty, joined in an angle at the narrow end, the heraldic horse of the Republic in the usual attitude and of the proper dimensions.

Let this be communicated and published.

For the National Executive,

P. EZEQUIEL ROJAS.

UNITED STATES OF VENEZUELA, MINISTRY OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS, DIRECTION OF FOREIGN PUBLIC LAW, No. 174. CARACAS, *February* 21, 1893.

TO THE MINISTER OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION:

Whereas this Department has originally been entrusted with the arrangements for the representation of Venezuela at the Universal Exhibition of Chicago, it has ordered in due time the design which is to serve as a model for engraving a new postage-stamp, which the Chief of the Executive Power has prescribed to create for the purpose of commemorating the Fourth Centenary of the Discovery of America and Venezuela's participation in the said Exhibition. And whereas the carrying-out of this decree belongs to your Office, especially in what concerns the engraving, importation, and sale of said postage-stamp, I have the honor of transmitting to you the

said design for that purpose, together with corresponding description and a sample of the stamp created a short time ago by the Government of the United States with an object analogous to that of Venezuela.

I am, sir, your obedient servant,

P. EZEQUIEL ROJAS.

DESCRIPTION OF THE NEW POSTAGE-STAMP, CREATED BY ORDER OF THE CHIEF OF THE NATIONAL EXECUTIVE POWER, IN ORDER TO COMMEMORATE THE FOURTH CENTENARY OF THE DISCOVERY OF AMERICA AND VENEZUELA'S PARTICIPATION IN THE UNIVERSAL EXHIBITION OF CHICAGO.

The stamp, which will be of the value of twenty-five hundredths of a bolivar, will be of oblong shape, will measure thirty-six millimeters in length by twenty-five in width, and on a light violet ground will represent the landing of the officers of Columbus on the coast of Venezuela in the year 1498. The upper part will bear the numbers indicating the price of the stamp, the year of the Discovery of America and that of the Fourth Centenary and the inscription: "Correos de Venezuela" (Venezuelan Post-Office). The lower part will bear the inscription: "Discovery of the Costa Firme, 1498."

UNITED STATES OF VENEZUELA, MINISTRY OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS, DIRECTION OF FOREIGN PUBLIC LAW, No. 175
CARACAS, *February* 21, 1893.

TO THE MINISTER OF THE POST-OFFICE AND TELEGRAPHS:

On this same date the Office under my charge is addressing that of Public Instruction in the terms which I now have the honor of inserting:

(*Here comes communication Number* 174, *concerning the creation of a new postage-stamp, intended to commemorate the Fourth Centenary of the Discovery of America and Venezuela's participation in the Universal Exhibition of Chicago.*)

And I have the honor of transcribing for you what precedes, and of remitting to you, in a separate envelope, the description to which reference is made therein, because the carrying-out of this

decision concerns your Ministry in that which relates to the circulation of the new stamp throughout the National Post-Office, and also the proper forwarding of sample copies and consequent information to the International Office, of Berne.

Im am, sir, your obedient servant,

P. Ezequiel Rojas.

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DISCOVERY OF THE MAIN LAND, 1498.

This picture, original of the Venezuelan artist, Sr. Arturo Michelena, was used as a model for the new postage stamp, created by order of the Chief of the Executive Power, to commemorate the four hundredth anniversary of the discovery of America, and the concurrence of the Republic to the World's Columbian Exhibition.

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GENERAL DESCRIPTION

OF THE

UNITED STATES OF VENEZUELA.

SUMMARY.

Geographical Position—Limits—Extent—Population—Rivers and Brooks—Lakes—Lands—Mountains—Islands—Coasts—Gulfs—Seasons—Temperature—Mines—Thermal Waters—Agriculture—Live Stock—Other Productions — Public Instruction — Public Works — Public Debt — Public Revenue—National Expenses—Imports—Exports—Mail Service—Telegraphs—Telephones—Navigation — Roads and Railways — Immigration — Immigration Laws — Vacant Lands — Weights and Measures—Monetary System—Banks—Press—Public Libraries—National Museum—Astronomical Observatory—Government and Civil Institutions—Historical Brief—Controversy of Limits with England —Regular Steamship Lines between Venezuela, Europe, and the United States.

Geographical Position. The Republic of the United States of Venezuela lies at the northern end of South America. It is included within the limits of the Torrid Zone 1° 40′ Lat. S. and 12° 26 N. Its Long., following the parallel of Carácas, is 10° 20′ E. and 6° 25′ W.

Limits. Its limits are, on the North, the Caribbean Sea; on the South, the United States of Brazil and part of the Colombian Republic; on the East, British Guiana and the Atlantic Ocean, and on the West the above Republic of Colombia.

Extent. Within its borders the territory of Venezuela embraces an area of 597,960 square miles, which sur-

passes in extent that of France, Germany, and the Low Countries together, or the combined States of Texas, Colorado, Idaho, and California.

Population. The total population of Venezuela, as per census of 1891, reaches the number of 2,323,527 souls.

Rivers and Brooks. The soil of Venezuela is watered by 1,047 rivers and brooks, and of these 436 are Orinoco affluents; 230 discharge into the Caribbean Sea, 124 into the Gulf of Paria, 120 into the Lake of Maracaibo, and 22 into the Lake of Valencia. The principal rivers, which allow large ships to enter their waters, are the Orinoco, Apure, Meta, Caura, Negro, and Guárico. The Orinoco river is navigable to the place called Los Atures, 850 miles distant from the Ocean. By means of the Orinoco branches running from the West the rich products from the interior of the Colombian Republic are transported to the European and American markets. Other navigable tributaries to the Orinoco run South and join the Amazon river or its affluents, opening additional communications with the Ocean.

Lakes. The two largest lakes are Maracaibo and Valencia. The first, at the level of the sea, has 2,100 square miles, and the second, which is 1,692 feet above the Ocean, has 66 square miles.

Lands. The soil is divided into three different sections, which are called agricultural, grazing, and wooded lands. To the first division correspond the farms for coffee, cocoa, sugar-cane, grains, etc. The cultivation of these lands does not amount to 300 square miles, and there yet remain for clearing and ploughing 13,350 square miles which could increase seventy times at least the actual production.

The grazing section is covered with rich gramineous; cattle and herds thrive plentifully and fatten

with little attention on the part of the owners. In this belt exist the large stock-yards supplying the farmers and markets with oxen for plough and nutriment.

The third section, or woods, yields the productions naturally obtained from the soil, as rubber, vanilla, sarrapia, copaiba, sarsaparilla, timber, and precious woods which are excellent for building, tanning, textiles of several kinds, resins, balms, and many medicinal plants, affording a vast field for business with little effort to industrious people.

Mountains. There are three systems of mountains in Venezuela: the Andes, the Coast, and the Parima Ranges.

The Andes, trending from Pamplona, in the Republic of Colombia, towards the northeast, one branch of which extends to the Peninsula Goajira, and the other entering the State of Los Andes, mingles with the Coast Range.

The Coast Range runs parallel with the coast of the Caribbean Sea and extends its branches to the interior of the sections Bolivar, Miranda, Carabobo, Cojédes, Yaracuy, Barquisimeto, and Falcon.

The third, or Parima Range, begins in the interior of the State of Bolivar, traversing the country east and west, and forming the southern limit of the agricultural zone.

Islands. The islands belonging to Venezuela number about seventy, and all of them are of small size, excepting the Margarita island, which has 441 square miles.

Coasts. The coast extends 1,876 miles and is washed by the Caribbean Sea and the Atlantic Ocean. There are distributed along it thirty-two harbors, fifty bays, and numerous inlets. The lakes of Maracaibo and Valencia have several interior ports, and near the outfalls of the large rivers safe anchorages are found.

Gulfs. Five gulfs are formed by the coast. The largest is known as the Gulf of Maracaibo and contains 1,620

square miles. It is followed by the Paria, or Triste Gulf, 900 square miles. The Coro Gulf contains 180 square miles, and the Santa Fé Gulf, which is the smallest, contains only 66 square miles.

Seasons. Properly speaking, there are but the rainy and the dry seasons in Venezuela, which are distinguished as winter and summer in the country. The arrival of the Sun at the Tropic of Capricorn marks the first season, and when it enters the Tropic of Cancer, the second begins. The rains fall from April to October, and at the same time the temperature rises. The rest of the year the weather is cool and pleasant.

During the dry season, or summer, the northeast winds are frequent, and they also blow from the north and northwest, being more common in November and December than in February or March. Rains fall during the same months, though not so copiously as in winter, and they are called "Northers."

Temperature. Following the heights on the sea-level, the Venezuela territory is divided into three sections: cold, temperate, and warm. The snowy peaks are found between 14° and 16°. The temperate lands begin at the height of 7,032 feet, and descend till 1,928 feet above the sea-level. Within this belt all suitable climates are found. The hot countries lie from 1,928 feet above down to the sea-level.

Here follows a table with the temperatures of several places in Venezuela:

	Average Temperature.	*Feet Above Sea-Level.*
Caracas	F. 71	3,018
Porto Cabello	80	7
La Guaira	84	26
La Victoria	74	1,494
Valencia	77	1,824
Maracaibo	83	28
Mérida	61	5,303
Montalban	73	237

	Average Temperature.	*Feet Above Sea-Level.*
Nirgua	F. 71	2,504
Barcelona	82	42
Carúpano	81	24
Maturin	82	23
Barquisimeto	77	1,711
Ciudad Bolivar	83	187
Rio Caribe	84	15

The variation of temperature in the warmest localities is very small, from 15° to 19° F. The temperature of La Guaira, during the entire year, as shown by five daily observations of the thermometer, ranges from 76° to 94° F.

The Northern extremes either of cold or heat are unknown to these regions.

Mines.

There are mines of different ores in several sections of the country, though the more valuable deposits are found in the Yuruari region. There is located the Callao mine, its gold output in the last ten years having made it renowned throughout the world. Gold is also found in the mountainous region watered by the Yaracui River, and in the cities of San Felipe and Nirgua. Rich mines of the same metal, near Carúpano, are worked with New York capital, and they have produced seven ounces per ton. Silver, copper, and lead mines are found in the same country.

The valuable copper mines of Aroa are located 70 miles to the east of Porto Cabello, and are worked by an English company. The red copper extracted therefrom is preferred in the European markets to Swedish and Chilian copper.

Red hematite and excellent iron are found in the Cordillera. The same ores exist at Coro, Barinas, Barcelona, Cumaná, and Parima; but the largest

deposits of these ores are near the Imataca River, an affluent of the lower Orinoco.

From the neighborhood of Tocuyo specimens of lead have been obtained which promise a rich ore. This mine is not yet worked.

The Pedernales asphalt, by its vitreous aspect and hardness, seems identical with the Egyptian refined, or "Epure."

Coal deposits exist 12 miles distant from Barcelona, and there have been explored in a short area over one hundred beds, varying from 4 to 7 inches in thickness. This coal is of the bituminous kind, burns easily, emits combustible gas, leaves a small part of clayish ashes, and very little of sulphur.

The rich salt beds discovered by Niño, in 1499, at the Araya peninsula are constantly worked. They have produced for the government, since 1873, a revenue of $2,753,761.44. Salt is taken out easily, and with little expense.

In Lagunillas, near Merida, the bottom of a lake is covered with "urao" (*i. e.*, sesqui carbonate of soda).

In Cumaná, Barcelona, and Coro are found large deposits of sulphur, which have not yet been worked. The granite in the Silla Mountain, near Caracas, is inexhaustible, and slate, marble, granite, and chalk abound on the coast and in the Parima Mountains.

The gold exports from the Yuruari mines from 1886 to 1890 were:

Companies.	*Kilos.*	*Grams.*
Callao	6,983	87
Chili	731	273
The Union	583	749
Callao Bis	58	133
Cicapra	----	893
Chocó	----	155
Venezuela Austin, Ld	1,108	959
Gold from several Companies	225	231
New Potosi	202	686

These figures amount to a little over 9 tons of gold weight.

Thermal Waters. Thermal and mineral waters are of common occurrence in the several sections of the country. The hot waters of Las Trincheras, by the Porto Cabello and Valencia RR. are already renowned, and their temperature is 114°. Excepting the Urijino Springs of Japan, which reach 117°, Las Trincheras waters are considered the hottest in the world. Some remarkable springs are found in Coro, at La Quiva near the Pedregal road, where forty streams run through beds which are as white as porcelain.

Agriculture. The raising of coffee, cocoa, and sugar-cane forms the main agricultural industry in Venezuela. The two first-named products are exported at all times, but coffee is the basis of the commercial exchange with foreign nations. In any of the agricultural sections of the Republic the staple grains in all their varieties are easily raised, as well as all kinds of pot-herbs, cotton, tobacco, and all tropical productions. One-fifth of the population is devoted to agricultural pursuits.

Live Stock. Stock-raising has considerably increased in Venezuela during the recent years. In 1888 the figures comprising the preceding fifteen years of raising were as follows :

	Heads	*Increase. Per Cent*
Cattle	8,476,291	900
Goats and sheep	5,727,517	400
Hogs	1,929,693	500
Horses	387,646	400
Mules	300,556	600
Donkeys	858,963	300

Other Productions. The above-mentioned are not the only productions of the country. It also produces hides, greases, wax, honey, etc. Sericulture has been successfully attempted. The tortoise-shell is plentiful on the Western coast of the Falcon section, and there are deposits of mother-of-pearl in Nueva Esparta.

Public Instruction

The public schools are divided into two classes—popular instruction and the scientific schools, and both classes are regulated separately.

The popular or common instruction is gratuitous and compulsory. The 1st of January, 1889, the schools were attended by 100,026 children of both sexes. The Federal popular schools numbered 1,415 in 1891. Their cost to the National Government amounts yearly to $500,759. There are also many private schools.

The scientific schools comprise 2 universities, 8 Federal colleges of the first order, 14 of the second; 14 National colleges for females; 1 normal school for females; 1 academy of Fine Arts; 1 school for singing and elocution; 1 polytechnic school; 26 private colleges; 1 naval school, and 1 school of telegraphy. The Government has lately decreed 1 agricultural institute. The attendance at all these institutions is 5,000 students, who are under the tuition of 436 teachers. During the year 1890 the cost of these branches of instruction was $168,386.11.

Public Works.

Large sums of money have been spent in Venezuela in public works, such as churches, hospitals, schools, parks, monuments, canalization, roads, etc. The sum disbursed on this account from December 1st, 1888, to November 30th, 1890, was $3,510,435.56.

Public Debt.

The public debt in existence is now classed under four heads, as follows: Interior Debt, Foreign Debt, Debt by the Diplomatic Agreements, and One Per Cent Titles, the amounts of which are:

Interior Debt	$7,354,542.96
Foreign Debt	12,958,801.34
Diplomatic Debt	828,915.38
One Per Cent. Titles	647,261.79
Total	$21,789,521.47

In order to meet its obligations, Venezuela has only

to set aside 10 per cent. of its revenue as it appears in the Treasury tables for 1889–90, a fact which, viewed from an economic standpoint, shows a favorable prospect and the forethought of its financiers.

Public Revenue.

The public revenue in Venezuela is derived principally from the import duties. Other sources are the lease of salt mines, the postage-stamps, mineral taxes, etc.

National Expenses.

The following tables show the amounts of the Government branches sharing in the public expenses in the mentioned years :

Departments.	1888–89. *Bolivars.*	1889–90. *Bolivars.*
Interior	8,187,663.66	7,502,514.24
Foreign Affairs	1,399,122.17	1,290,985.36
Finances	6,000,318.16	10,844,732.89
Public Advancement	1,877,024.43	2,251,530.55
Public Credit	4,256,366.41	3,866,716.65
Public Works	5,379,760.24	11,166,589.49
War and Navy	6,536,832.21	5,489,842.86
Public Instruction	3,786,303.20	3,217,954.50
Totals	B. 37,423,390.48	B. 45,630,866.54
Increase during 1889–90		**B. 8,207,476.06**

Here is a table showing the distribution of public revenue among the Federal States in 1888–89 and 1889–90 :

Total receipts for the two years	$7,466,666.64
Deducted for collection and management expenses	355,852.00
	$7,110,814.64

The total for the year 1889–90 was distributed as follows:

Name of State.	*Census Population.*	*Pro rata of percentage.*	*Bolivars.*
Miranda	494,002	25.78	916,580.15
Carabobo	158,851	8.34	296,519.72
Lara	233,752	12.20	433,757.86

Name of State	*Census Population.*	*Pro rata of percentage.*	*Bolivars.*
Falcón	187,051	9.76	347,006.29
Zamora	236,371	12.33	438,379.87
Bolivar	54,422	2.84	100,973.14
Bermudez	257,867	13.46	478,555.81
Los Andes	293,108	15.29	543,619.48
			B.3,555,392.32

Imports.

The increase of the import values effected through the Custom-Houses in the last seventeen years has been considerable in comparison with the figures preceding 1873:

Years.	*Values Imported. Bolivars.*
1830 to 1831	8,188,105.65
1834 to 1835	13,999,167.80
1839 to 1840	24,865,431.25
1844 to 1845	19,846,907.70
1849 to 1850	16,593,246.50
1854 to 1855	24,971,218.00
1859 to 1860	27,230,577.70
1864 to 1865	38,135,265.70
1873 to 1874	61,717,183.45

The values imported from the different foreign ports in the fiscal years 1888–89 and 1889–90, were:

1888–89.

	Bolivars.		*Bolivars.*
Hamburg	25,490,948.00	Habana	47,764.05
Havre	5,985,107.00	San José de Cucuta	3,944,456.00
St. Nazaire	3,411,807.15	Port Spain	724,462.55
Marseilles	1,043,824.10	New York	19,861,432.20
Barcelonne	1,443,061.00	Liverpool	16,230,840.00
Malaga	825,659.50	Bordeaux	1,804,209.00
London	558,686.00		

Total **B. 81,372,256.55.**

1889–90.

	Bolivars.		*Bolivars.*
Liverpool	20,580,425.00	Port Spain	1,637,401.00
Hamburg	19,580,550.00	Malaga	927,493.00
Havre	6,768,075.00	Genoa	499,482.00
St. Nazaire	3,184,079.37	Leghorn	33,870.00
Bordeaux	3,814,741.00	Swansea	48,583.51
Barcelonne	1,896,134.00	Glasgow	57,000.00
New York	23,460,390.61	Cardiff	136,480.00
London	867,026.00	Teneriffe	122,681.00
Total			B. 83,614,411.49.

Exports

The increase of exports from Venezuela from the year 1873 to 1890 is in proportion to the imports in the same period.

To give an idea of such increase some figures are submitted referring to previous years:

Years.	*Bolivars.*
1830 to 1831	8,676,829.45
1834 to 1835	13,308,357.10
1839 to 1840	23,755,510.30
1844 to 1845	22,368,635.05
1849 to 1850	23,957,205.35
1854 to 1855	27,467,451.95
1859 to 1860	34,514,595.40
1864 to 1865	33,398,358.90
1873 to 1874	73,918,122.05

The articles exported for foreign countries and their values during the years 1888–89 and 1889–90, are given in the following list.

	1888–1889.	1889–1890.
Coffee	B. 70,293,410	B. 71,167,850
Cocoa	9,757,427	9,329,396
Hides	2,500,572	2,432,267
Deer-skins	298,536	333,740
Goat-skins	2,132,501	1,962,067
Cotton	150,211	71,181
Indigo	12,268	7,774
Quina	163,687	126,323
Dividive pods	331,437	489,826
Tobacco, leaf and manufactur'd	107,687	243,872
Starch	26,088	11,648
Panela & papelon (brown sugar)	131,812	125,665
Tinctorial woods	309,020	426,526
Woods, different kinds	162,821	136,713

	1888–1889.	1889–1890.
Rushes, different kinds	B. 4,323	B. 1,776
Rubber	326,844	274,716
Horns	26,356	13,463
Fish-glue	57,680	47,986
Bait	11,616	8,760
Cocoanut	81,618	48,426
Bananas	31,500	43,416
Fruits	6,487	5,227
Spirits and alcohol	2,493	3,184
Living plants	14,057	15,726
Stuffed birds	13,600	11,900
Salt fish	11,600	5,160
Beans	2,856	13,652
Live cattle	1,213,480	1,176,000
Goats and sheep	210	680
Horses	49,900	80,600
Donkeys	46,900	32,528
Mules	26,270	----
Cheese	8,532	6,880
Gold and silver coin	1,806,301	539,599
Gold ore and melted	2,522,485	8,888,428
Clay gold	149,242	183,154
Sarrapia (Tonka beans)	189,087	442,721
Sabadil	5,041	7,840
Simaruba bark	9,359	4,715
Copper ores and old copper	3,806,418	1,971,939
Tiger-skins	1,010	1,504
Candies of several classes	976	1,330
Chocolate	24,731	18,172
Sugar	2,289	100
Asphalt	2,035	559
Bricks	3,274	1,880
Onoto (arnatto seeds)	7,668	4,750
Aloes	1,600	500
Wool	1,560	490
Sole leather	4,564	7,569
Balsam of copaiba	196,536	120,199
Cocoanut oil	176	45
Sarsaparilla	1,040	400
Feathers	3,000	17,828
Sea shells	3,425	3,761
Resins of several kinds	2,781	6,588
Bones	840	6,488
Corn	4,780	7,782
Cogollo (bleached palm or grass leaves for hat-plaiting)	3,800	4,659
Chalk	8,452	3,070
Pot-herbs	329	466
Earthenware	600	360
Turtles	830	920
Quartz	1,330	140
Orange-peels	1,151	678
Different produce	181,745	13,740
	B. 97,262,254	B. 100,917,302

Mail Service. All the sections of the country are communicated with through regular mails, and the periodicity of these is dependent on the land roads or the navigation of the sea and rivers which open them to traveling. All inland points distant from seas and rivers are communicated with by foot or horse posts with the nearest stations opened to steamers or railroads.

Telegraphs. The extent of the telegraphic web is 6,278 kilometers and 144 meters (3,900 miles) and the number of the telegraph-offices is 112. The capital city is connected with all the States of the Republic and with Europe and the United States by a sea cable laid from La Guaira *via* the West Indies.

Telephones. There are two telephone companies with offices in Caracas, La Guaira, Valencia and Porto Cabello, Antimano, Maracaibo, El Valle, and Sabana Grande. It is also proposed to have them established at Ciudad Bolivar, San Cristobal and Rubio, State of Los Andes, and Seccion Táchira.

Navigation. Five steamship lines ply along the Venezuelan coasts and through the rivers. The steamships *Maracaibo* and *Merida* run to Coro, Maracaibo, and Curazao, connecting in this island with the American steamers of the Red D Line.

One line runs between Porto Cabello, La Guaira, Trinidad, and intermediate points, and another between Carenero and Rio Chico.

The Company navigating between Ciudad Bolivar and Port Spain makes also trips to San Fernando, El Baúl, Camagián, and Nutrias, when the Apure River is navigable. *Guayre* and *Socorro* are two steamships making the same trips and also to Arauca.

El Progreso and *El Uribante* run between Maracaibo, La Ceiba, Cón, and Encontrados.

Porto Cabello and Tucacas are connected by a steamboat line.

Two tow-boats and a sailing ship are employed by pilots in Maracaibo.

Roads and Railways.

The country is crossed by wagon-roads in all directions. The railways already finished have an extension of 234 miles and connect the following points: Caracas and La Guaira; Caracas and El Valle; Porto Cabello and Valencia; Maiquetia and Macuto; Guanta and Barcelona; La Luz El Hacha and Barquisimeto; Carenero and San José, and Ceiba and Sabana de Mendoza.

Other important roads in course of construction are: The Central Railway, which has a concession to build a road from Carácas to Valencia, *via* Santa Lucía and Cúa.

The Grand Railroad of Venezuela is constructing a road from Carácas to Valencia and San Carlos, State of Zamora, which will pass through the fertile Aragua valleys, called the Venezuela garden.

Other companies have been incorporated, and it is expected that they will soon commence to build.

Immigration.

In order to promote immigration the Venezuelan Government has established abroad four Information Bureau in the following cities: Bordeaux, France; Antwerp, Belgium; Santander, Spain; Las Palmas, Canary Islands. Two agricultural colonies were founded in 1874; one called Independencia, is located south of the Tuy River, in the middle of the Guárico and Bolivar districts, in the State of Miranda; the other called Bolivar colony is situated near Guatire, and owns lands watered by the Araira river of extraordinary fertility in the lowlands as well as the highlands. Both colonie have succeeded well and thrive uninterruptedly.

Immigration Laws. By the immigration laws of Venezuela, the transportation expenses of immigrants are paid by the Government from the time they leave their country till their final location. A lot of vacant land is allowed to each immigrant, and the right to purchase at half the price established by law any public lands which he may wish to buy. A period of two years is granted for the payment of said lands. All immigration contracts made by the Venezuelan Consuls abroad are submitted to the Government for approval.

Vacant Lands. By official statistics the vacant lands in the agricultural section of Venezuela are estimated at 140,479 square miles, while the grazing lands contain 93,213 square miles.

All applicants for vacant lands engage to have ploughed and under cultivation three years after their purchase at least half of their extent. In the case of grazing lands for stock-raising they ought to be occupied one year after the grant. The sale is made following the legal appraisement and the price is paid at the office of Public Credit.

Weights and Measures. The metrical system for weights and measures has been established by law.

Monetary System. The monetary unit of Venezuela is the bolivar, corresponding to the Spanish peseta or French franc, and is equal to 0.1923 of the American dollar. The gold pieces are 100, 25, and 20 bolivars, and the silver pieces of 5, $2\frac{1}{2}$, 2, 1, $\frac{1}{2}$, and $\frac{1}{4}$ bolivars. The circulation of foreign moneys as legal tender is prohibited, and they are considered only as merchandise without fixed value. The American 20-dollar gold piece is quoted at 104 bolivars and its fractions proportionately.

Banks. The two banks which issue bills in Venezuela are private institutions, and their notes circulate at par value.

Press. Newspapers are published in all the principal centers of population. Most of them are of a political character. There are some scientific, literary, mercantile, illustrated, and religious periodicals. The total number of publications is 250.

Public Libraries. The National Library has 32,000 volumes. The Medical Library of the Central University owns 2,400 volumes. The library of the Venezuelan Academy has collected 2,000 volumes on Languages, History, and General Literature. All these libraries are located in the city of Caracas.

In other sections of the Republic as Valencia, Maracaibo, Bolivar City, Miranda, and Falcon, the public libraries are well provided.

National Museum. The National Museum is divided into three branches. The Bolivar branch preserves all objects, mementoes, and documents relating to the Liberator, Simon Bolivar. The second branch is devoted to National History; and the third is a Museum of Natural History.

Astronomical Observatory. The Astronomical and Meteorological Observatory is provided with all instruments pertaining to this kind of institutions, and is in correspondence with the European and American Observatories. Its services have been appreciated abroad on account of the geographical and climatologic conditions of its location.

Government and Civil Institutions. The Government of Venezuela is Republican and Federal. The Nation is divided into nine large States, one Federal District, and five Territories. The national institutions insure to all the inhabitants, natives as well as foreigners, the safety of their lives; respect for their property, with all its safeguards; privacy for their correspondence; security for their

homes, which cannot be transgressed except to prevent a crime; personal freedom for their thoughts or writings; religious and traveling liberties; rights of petition, association, industry, and suffrage.

The popular instruction is compulsory and free of charge.

The Legislative power is represented by the Congress, which is divided into a Senate and a Chamber of Deputies. The Senate is formed by three Senators from each State, who are chosen for four years. One Deputy is apportioned to every 35,000 inhabitants, or to any fraction exceeding 15,000, and they are also chosen for four years.

The Congress comprises twenty-seven Senators and fifty-three Deputies. They convene in Caracas every year on the 20th of February, and to each legislative period are assigned seventy days, which may be extended for twenty additional days.

The Executive power is vested in the President of the Republic and his Ministers. The President attends to the enforcement of the laws. The Presidential term was two years by the last Constitution.

At present, while the National Assembly is revising the national institutions, the Presidency is temporarily committed to the Executive Chief, Gen. Joaquin Crespo, the leader of the last movement, which was sustained by the whole Republic, and overthrew the rule of a faithless President. The Executive Government of Venezuela is now composed of the following personnel:

Chief of the National Executive.—
GEN. JOAQUIN CRESPO.
Ministers: Interior.—GEN. LEON COLINA.
Foreign Affairs.—PEDRO EZEQUIEL ROJAS.
Finances.—GEN. JOSÉ ANTONIO VELUTINI.
Public Advancement.—LEOPOLDO BAPTISTA.
Public Instruction.—GEN. IGNACIO ANDRADE.
War and Navy.—GEN. MANUEL GUZMAN ALVAREZ.

Public Works.—JESUS MUÑOZ TÉBAR.
Governor of the Federal District.—ANTONIO RAMELLA.

The Judiciary Branch is composed of the High Federal Courts and the Corte of Casacion, or Court of Appeals, which is the Court of the States. Justice is also administered in all the States of the Union by other Courts and the municipal judges.

Historical Brief. Venezuela was the country first discovered on the South American Continent by Christopher Columbus on August 1, 1498, during his third voyage. The war waged by the Spaniards to subjugate the natives lasted forty years. When they were overpowered and the City of Caracas founded, the Captaincy-General of Venezuela continued for two hundred and forty years under the Spanish Crown, and the country was governed by Captain-Generals appointed by the Spanish kings.

In 1806, General Francisco Miranda, at the head of a patriotic group, landed in Coro and raised the flag of Independence. After several bloody encounters the independent followers were vanquished, but their failing did not choke down the national aspirations for independence.

On April 19, 1810, the City of Caracas witnessed a daring movement for national freedom. On July 5, 1811, the Act, or Declaration, of Independence was signed in the same city, and by it the United Provinces of Venezuela erected themselves into an independent Republic. During the next ten years a bloody and incessant war existed until in 1821 the Liberator, Simon Bolivar, the genius of South American Independence, crowned his preceding triumphs with the Carabobo battle, which was fought in the plains bearing the last name. The royalist army was completely routed and the independence of the Republic sealed.

The remnant of the Spanish armies in Venezuela were conquered in 1823 at Porto Cabello, and obliged to leave the country by General José Antonio Paez. By the treaty of peace, signed at Madrid in 1845, the Government of Spain formally acknowledged the independence of the Republic.

Controversy of Limits with England.

It is not out of place to state here that for a long time there has existed between Great Britain and Venezuela a dispute about territorial limits. Venezuela has not ceased to ask for the arbitration of friendly Powers to settle satisfactorily for both nations this protracted controversy. Though no solution has so far been arrived at, it is certainly to be hoped that it will come with honor and justice to both parties, because their reciprocal rights repose on historical facts which may be easily verified.

Regular Steamship Lines between Venezuela, Europe, and the United States.

The Royal Mail steamships from Southampton visit the port of La Guaira fortnightly, and return thence to Trinidad.

The British Harrison Line and West India and Pacific Line jointly dispatch one steamship per week from Liverpool for the West Indies, touching at La Guaira and Puerto Cabello, and returning to England *via* New Orleans.

The Hamburg-American Line dispatches a steamship semi-monthly from Hamburg for the West Indies, touching at La Guaira and Puerto Cabello, and usually returning to Europe *via* Sabanilla, Colombia.

The Spanish Transatlantic Company dispatches one steamship per month from New York, touching at La Guaira and Puerto Cabello, and returning to New York *via* Colon and Havana. Another ship is dispatched monthly from Spain for Colon that, going and returning, touches at La Guaira and Puerto Cabello.

The Netherlands Royal Mail Company dispatches one steamer monthly from Amsterdam *via* Dutch Guiana, touching at Carúpano, Cumaná, La Guaira, and Puerto Cabello, and returning to Europe *via* New York. Another steamer is dispatched monthly *via* New York, touching at La Guaira, Puerto Cabello, Cumaná, Carúpano, and returning thence *via* Dutch Guiana to Amsterdam.

The French Transatlantic Company dispatches two steamships per month from St. Nazaire, France, *via* Martinique, touching at La Guaira and Puerto Cabello on the voyage to Colon, whence the ship returns and calls at the same ports on the home voyage. This line also dispatches one steamship per month from Marseilles, touching at Carúpano, La Guaira, and Puerto Cabello, on the voyage to and from Colon.

The Thebaud Line of New York dispatches one steamship monthly from New York, touching at Carúpano and Ciudad Bolivar, and returning thence to New York.

One steamship per month leaves Havre, touching at La Guaira and Puerto Cabello *en route* to Curazao, and calling at the same ports on the return voyage.

The American steamships of the Red D Line leave New York every ten days and touch at the ports of Curazao, Puerto Cabello, and La Guaira, both going and returning. Branch steamers of this line make semi-weekly trips between Curazao and Maracaibo, and between Curazao and Coro, transferring passengers and cargo to and from the ships of the main line.

Medal coined by order of the Government of Venezuela to commemorate the four hundredth anniversary of the Discovery of America, and the concurrence of the Republic to the World's Columbian Exhibition.

A

DESCRIPTIVE CATALOGUE

OF THE OBJECTS SENT BY THE

UNITED STATES OF VENEZUELA

TO THE

World's Columbian Exposition

AND EXHIBITED IN THE

VENEZUELAN BUILDING

Jackson Park, Chicago.

DESCRIPTIVE CATALOGUE.

DEPARTMENT A.

AGRICULTURE, FOREST PRODUCTS, AND FORESTRY.

GROUP 1—CLASS 2. INDIAN CORN.

1 to 4. **MAIZE OR INDIAN CORN.** The exhibit shows only four varieties: *Maiz vallero, Maiz tengueragua, Maiz cariaco, Maiz amarillo:* but there are about half a dozen more in cultivation in the country, samples of which, however, could not be obtained in time. The *Maiz tengueragua* takes four months to get ripe, but it gives the best crop, and can be kept longer. The *Maiz vallero* is ripe within three months, however the grain is not very compact and does not keep well. The *Maiz cariaco*, finally, ripens likewise in three months, and is generally, though without good reason, believed to be more nourishing than the other varieties.

From official returns, there are about 20,000 hectares of land (about 50,000 acres) given over to the cultivation of corn, and the total amount of produce is believed to be 120,000,000 kilogr. There are two crops every year, one in summer (dry season), the other in winter (rainy season), this latter being the more abundant of the two.

Maize may be grown in every kind of soil from the level of the sea upwards to 2,800 metres, though it grows best between 500 and 1,000 metres. Its cultivation is very easy; but occasionally the seed is lost several times, as a consequence of unfavourable weather. The plant suffers comparatively little from enemies: the smut (*uredo maydis*) is rare, but several species of birds do some damage to the ripe ears. The writer has had an opportunity to examine a sample of Venezuelan maize, weighing as much as 80 kilogr. per hectoliter, which is more, I believe, than the average weight of Pennsylvania corn.

Maize is to a very large extent the true bread-plant of Venezuela, especially in the interior of the country. It is scarcely, if at all, used for making corn-meal; but the grains, after having been soaked in water and pounded in a wooden mortar (called *pilón*), so that the hard shell comes off, are used for preparing little round loaves, called *arepas*, which are eaten warm.

The maize plant is also cultivated as green fodder (called *malojo*) for horses and mules, and is cut as soon as the terminal male inflorescence has appeared.[1]

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[1] Unless stated otherwise, the articles mentioned in this catalogue were exhibited by the Government of Venezuela

GROUP 2—CLASS 16. STARCH AND ITS MANUFACTURE FROM ALL SOURCES.

5. MAIZE-STARCH (*Zea Mays*). Prepared from the variety called *Maiz cariaco*, which yields about 60 per cent. of starch.

6. APIO-STARCH (*Arracacha esculenta*). The plant which goes in Venezuela by the name of *Apio*, belongs to the family of umbelliferæ, and looks very much like celery, which accounts for the name (*Apio* in Spanish means *celery*). It is a native of the South American Andes, and grows only in heights from 1,500 meters upwards. It is a biennial plant; in the first year the large fleshy root only develops a number of radical leaves, whilst in the second year a tall stem grows up, bearing the flowers. As in this growth, however, the mealy substance of the root is used up, the latter is dug out before the stem appears. The fleshy root is of a yellow color, and, when boiled, very palatable. It contains from 20 to 22 per cent. of starch, besides a sweetish juice, which yields good alcohol.

7 CHIGA-STARCH (*Campsiandra comosa*). Upper Apure, Aranca, Meta, Orinoco. The starch is extracted from the seeds and used as breadstuff. (Exhib. Nat. Mus., Caracas.)

8. LAIREN-STARCH. The tuberculous roots of *Calathea allouya*, looking very much like small potatoes, are eaten after having been boiled, and contain about 23 per cent. of a most beautiful starch.

9. MANDIOCA-STARCH (*Manihot utilissima*, called *Yuca* in Venezuela). There are two varieties: *Yuca dulce* and *Yuca amarga*. The latter contains a very poisonous juice, which must be got rid of by pressure after the root is ground. It contains about 15 per cent. of starch, which is sold at $6 to $7 the hundredweight.

10. MANDIOCA-STARCH. Exhib. Govt. of the State of Bermudez.

11. MAPUEI-STARCH (*Dioscorea trifida*). There are two varieties: *Mapuei blanco* and *Mapuei morado*, according to the interior of the roots, which is white in the former, and of a murrey color in the latter. The boiled roots are much used instead of potatoes, and are, indeed, of a very good taste.

12. OCUMO-STARCH (*Colocasia esculenta*). The tubercles of the rhizom contain about 30 per cent. of starch, and when boiled taste like some inferior kinds of potatoes.

13. POTATO-STARCH. Potatoes grow well in most parts of Venezuela, farmers using generally German or French seed. They suffer, however, occasionally from blight, and the amount grown is by far not sufficient for consumption, so that every year a considerable quantity of potatoes is imported, especially from Germany and France.

14. PLANTAIN-FLOUR (*Musa paradisiaca*).

15. YAMS-STARCH (*Dioscorea alata*). The roots contain 18 per cent. of starch, together with a large amount of mucilage.

16. SWEET POTATO STARCH (*Batata edulis*). The sweet potato is extensively cultivated; it contains from 15 to 20 per cent. of starch, and 5 to 7 per cent. of glucose.

17. YURUMA-STARCH (from *Mauritia flexuosa*). Exhib. by the Governor of the Territory "Delta del Orinoco."

GROUP 3—SUGARS—CLASS 18. CANE-SUGAR.

18. REFINED CANE-SUGAR. The cultivation of sugar-cane is one of the most important branches of rural industry in Venezuela, especially in the warmer parts of the country, up to about 1,000 m. above sea-level. The variety cultivated is the so-called Otahiti cane, which needs from 16 to 18 months before it gets fully ripe. The juice is pressed from the canes between iron rollers, moved either by water-power or by steam, but at the most no more than 70 to 75 per cent. of the total quantity is obtained, the rest remaining in the refuse (*bagazo*), which is dried and used as fuel. The juice is either allowed to ferment, and thus to be changed into a kind of ordinary brandy, called *aguardiente*, or boiled down to a certain thickness, and then thrown into wooden or earthen moulds, in which it hardens and becomes what is called *papelón*, a kind of brown sugar used all over the country. Loaves like those to be seen in our exhibit are likewise made by pouring the well-defecated juice into large conical moulds, and placing on the upper side, as soon as the sugar hardens, a layer of a certain clayish earth, well mixed with some water. This humidity sinks gradually through the whole loaf, taking along with it a great deal of the impurities contained in the sugar. One hectare of good land gives about 15,000 canes, weighing some 60,000 kilogr., and these should yield 3,000 kilogr. of brown sugar and 2,000 liters of *aguardiente*, worth together nearly $1,000. The importation of foreign sugar is prohibited by the Venezuelan custom laws.

19. SUGAR. Exib. Carlos Sanchez G., Valencia.

20. BROWN SUGAR (*papelón*), from the plantation Paya in the State of Carabobo.

21. MOULD FOR MAKING PAPELÓN or common raw sugar, Yaracuy, State of Lara.

CLASS 26. HONEY.

22. HONEY. The bee kept in Venezuela belongs to the variety known as *Apis ligurica*. It was introduced in 1856 from the Canary Islands by Dr. Fernando Bolet, who thus became the father of bee-keeping in the whole country. There are, besides, several wild species of bees that make honey.

23. HONEY, from Cumaná.

GROUP 5—VEGETABLE PRODUCTS OF THE FARM NOT OTHERWISE CLASSED.—CLASS 32. BEANS.

24. CARAOTAS BLANCAS (white beans).

25. " PINTADAS DE AMARILLO (yellow-spotted beans).

26. " NEGRAS (black beans).

27. " PONCHAS (soft beans).

28. " PINTADAS (colored beans).

29. GUARACAROS PINTADOS (colored flat beans).

30. " BLANCOS (white flat beans).

31. FRIJOLES BAYOS (bay-colored beans).

32. FRIJOLITOS BLANCOS (small white beans).

33. " AMARILLOS (small yellow beans).

34. TAPIRAMOS BLANCOS.

Most of these beans come from varieties of *Phaseolus vulgaris*, and the *Caraotas negras* especially are one of the staple articles of food all about the country. They were certainly not introduced by the Spaniards, save one or two varieties.

35. BEANS, white and colored. Exhib. Government of the State of Bermudez.

36. LENTEJAS. This name means literally *lentils*, but it is quite a different grain. They are indeed the seeds of *Phaseolus mungo*, but not much in use.

GROUP 38—EXTRACT OF BEEF.

37. EXTRACT OF BEEF (*Suculenta Americana*), prepared and exhibited by Dr. D. Céspedes, Caracas.

GROUP 8—TEA, COFFEE, SPICES, HOPS, AND AROMATIC AND OLEAGINOUS VEGETABLE SUBSTANCES—CLASS 45. COFFEE, COCOA, CHOCOLATE.

COFFEE. The best coffee is grown in the *tierra templada* and the lower part of the *tierra fria*, where the vegetation is refreshed throughout the whole year by dense and cool morning fogs. Experience has proved that the coffee-tree thrives best under the shade of other large trees. For this purpose, in the warmer parts, the "saman" (*Pithecolobium saman*) and the "orore" (*Pithecolobium hymenaefolium*) are used; in the temperate belt the principal shade-tree is the "bucare" (*Erythrina corallodendron* and *E. mitis*), and in the colder region the coffee-tree is sheltered by various species of "guamo" (*Inga fastuosa*, *I. vera*, etc.). Of all these shade-trees the bucare is the best, as it makes a high clear trunk with a rather light crown, and sheds its leaves in December and January, so that the coffee-trees get an abundance of air and light precisely in the time just before flowering.

The coffee-tree gives a first crop when four to five years old, crop-time beginning generally in September or October. On well-managed estates there are no more than 1,000 trees per *fanegada* of land (a *fanegada* equal to 10,000 square *varas*, or 1.78 acres). It may be assumed that every tree yields $\frac{3}{4}$ *almudes* (7.5 liters or 7 quarts) of berries, which makes 750 *almudes* per *fanegada*. 36 *almudes* of fresh berries make one quintal of merchantable coffee; a *fanegada* produces therefore about 20 quintals of the latter, which, at the actual price of $17 per quintal, are worth $340, one-half at least of this amount being net profit.

The ripe coffee-berries look very much like small cherries, and grow in clusters close to the bases of the leaf-stalks. After being picked, they are thrown into the *descerezador* or coffee-pulper, in order to take off the fleshy outer part. This is done by pushing the fruits through a wedge-shaped slit against a rotary cylinder sheathed with a plate of copper which has a great number of little blunt bosses. After this manipulation the fruits are left for about twenty-four hours in a tank of brick-work with water, where the beginning fermentation helps to wash them more perfectly, and then they are spread out to dry on a large court, either paved with bricks or made very smooth with mortar. When

perfectly dry, they are taken to the *trilla*, which consists of a heavy wood or stone wheel, moved either by water-power or by animal force, and running in a circular bed or channel, wherein the parchment-like shell-covering of the grains is crushed and broken, so that the clean grains can afterward be separated from the chaff, by means of the *venteador* or fanning-machine.

Coffee prepared in the manner described is called *café descerezado* (washed coffee), whilst *café trillado*, which is of an inferior quality, is made by drying the berries without their fleshy pulp being taken off first, and then crushing the husk in the *trilla*.

In first-class coffee the grains ought to be of equal size, light-greenish color, and have a special and pleasant aroma; they should, moreover, be all of the same color after being roasted. All these properties are combined in coffee from Venezuela, which, therefore, unquestionably belongs to the very best kinds of this article known in commerce.

Coffee is to-day the most important product of Venezuelan agriculture, and will certainly continue to hold its prominent rank, so much the more so as the culture of the tree is comparatively easy, and not exposed to any great hazards from the attacks of injurious animals and parasitic diseases. Of the latter there are two, though neither frequent nor very damaging; one is called *mancha de hierro* (*i. e.* iron rust), due to the ravages of the larva of a microlepidopterous insect (*Cemiostoma coffeellum;* the other is known under the name of *candelillo* (*i. e.* little fire), and is produced by the growth of a fungus (*Pellicularia Koleroga*) on the under side of the leaves, which die in consequence and look as if they had been scorched by fire.

Venezuela owes the introduction of coffee culture to D. José Antonio Mohedano, 1784, at that time parish priest of Chacao (near Caracas), and afterwards Bishop of Guiana. The first shipments were made in 1789 from La Guaira, and amounted to 233 quintals. To-day the exportation is of 1,000,000 quintals, and the total produce is calculated to be at least 1,300,000 quintals. Prices have fluctuated very much: in May, 1874, they reached in Caracas their maximum ($25 per quintal of 100 Spanish pounds of washed coffee); in 1883 they went down to $7 for the same; actually they are in Caracas $17 for washed coffee and about two dollars less for *trillados*. Most of the coffee from Venezuela is shipped to Germany (Hamburg) and France (Bordeaux and Havre). Not long ago a considerable quantity was also sent to the United States, and it is to be hoped that the circumstances which for the moment are interrupting this branch of commerce may soon disappear for the benefit and in the true interests of both countries.

A List of the Samples of Coffee exhibited, with short notes on the plantations where grown.

(*Tierra caliente* is the zone or belt from sea-level up to 600 meters, with a mean temperature of 25° C. (77° F.); the *tierra templada* extends from 600 to 1,500 meters, and has at its upper limit a mean temperature of 18° C. (64° 5 F.); whilst the *tierra fria* is situated above this limit.)

38. Coffee exhib. by **Santiago Becerra.**

39. " " " **Carlos Rodriguez.**

40. **Carlos Alberto Urbaneja,** Plant. Sabaneta de Aguanegra, Federal District; *tierra fria*, 200,000 trees, annual produce 1,000 quintals.

41. **Tomas Bueno,** Plant. Carabobo, in Turgua, State of Miranda; *tierra templada*, 200,000 trees, annual produce 800 quintals.

42. **Juan Gimenez,** Plant. La Concepción, St. Carabobo, 20 miles from Valencia; annual produce 700 quintals.

43. **Hijos de Ramon Francia,** Plant. Santo Cristo, St. Miranda, Distr. Sucre; *tierra templada,* 200,000 trees, 1,500 quintals.

44. **Anfiloquio Level,** Plant. of the same name, St. Miranda, Sect. Bolivar (Los Mariches); *tierra fria,* 400,000 trees, 1,500 quintals.

45. **Cirilo Matos é hijo,** Plant. Santa Rita, St. Miranda (Aragua); *tierra fria,* 40,000 trees, 600 quintals.

46. **Rodulfo Requena,** Plant. Chimborazo, St. Miranda (Aragua); *tierra templada,* 200,000 trees, 1,000 quintals.

47. **Carlos Sanchez, G.** Plant. Tarapio.

48. **Julian de Santamaria,** Chirgua.

49. **Justo Gasteburena,** Plant. Vijirimia, Chirgua.

50. **M. G. Simanca,** Chirgua.

51. **Eduardo Granadillo,** Plant. La Helvecia.

52. **Gomez Hermanos,** Plant. Turumo, St. Miranda; *tierra fria,* 400,000 trees, 600 quintals.

53. **A. Garcia Barrios,** coffee *caracolillo* from the plantations Jesus, Pasajeras, and Naranjos, in the valleys of Aragua. The name *caracolillo* means "little shell," and alludes to the round shape of the grain, which is due to the circumstance that only one of the seeds develops in the fruit. It is often erroneously called *Mocka Coffee.*

54. **Juan M. Rodriguez,** Plant. La Mata, St. Miranda (Hatillo); *tierra fria,* 400,000 trees, 300 quintals.

55. **Gabriel Medialdea,** Plant. Santa Ana de Marare, St. Miranda, Sect. Bolivar; *tierra caliente,* 400,000 trees, 2,000 quintals.

56. **A. Garcia Barrios,** large-grained coffee from the plantations mentioned under No. 53.

57. **N. G. Linares,** Plant. La Urbina, St. Miranda (Aragua); *tierra templada,* 100,000 trees, 800 quintals.

58. **Hidalgo & Guerra,** Plant. Los Cedros, St. Miranda (Aragua); *tierra templada,* 120,000 trees, 1,000 quintals.

59. **G. Vollmer,** Plant. El Avila, washed coffee.

59a. " Plant. San Bernardino, Coffee in *pergamino.*

60. **Juan Parra,** Plant. El Carmen, St. Miranda; *tierra templada,* 35,000 trees, 350 quintals.

61. **Ramon Guerra,** Plant. Casa Grande, St. Miranda (Aragua); *tierra templada,* 90,000 trees, 800 quintals.

62. **José A. Valero Lara,** Plant. San José de Figueroa, St. Miranda, Sect. Bolivar; *tierra fria,* 80,000 trees, 250 to 300 quintals.

63. **I. E. Linares,** Plant. Constancia, St. Miranda, Sect. Bolivar; *tierra fria,* 200,000 trees, 1,000 quintals.

64. **Ramon Muro & Co.** Plant. La Maria, St. Miranda, Dist. Suarez; *tierra fria,* 100,000 trees, 500 quintals.

65. **Eraso Hermanos & Co.,** Plant. Las Palomas, St. Miranda; *tierra fria,* 1,000,000 trees, 4,000 to 5,000 quintals.

66. **Luis A. Ibarra,** Plant. El Cedral, St. Miranda (Turgua); *tierra fria,* 300,000 trees, 800 quintals.

67. **Silvestre Pacheco,** Plant. La Concepción.

68. **Ulpiano Aleman,** Plant. Las Mercedes.

69. **Bernardino M. Ruiz,** Plant. Longa España (Naiguatá), St. Miranda, Sect. Bolivar, *tierra templada* (mean temp. 72° F.), 150,000 fruiting trees and 100,000 of 3 years age, 1,100 quintals in 1892.

70. **Pablo Ramirez,** Plant. Valle Morin, St. Miranda (Camatagua); *tierra caliente,* 50,000 trees, 200 quintals.

71. **J. E. Linares,** Plant. Curucutí, St. Miranda, Sect. Bolivar; *tierra templada,* 400,000 trees, 2,000 to 3,000 quintals.

72. **Feo Hernandez,** Coffee *trillado,* Valle Morin.

73. **Gualterio Chitty,** Plant. San José de la Encantada, St. Miranda, Dist. Vargas (Carayaca); *tierra fria* (max. temp. 66°, min. 40°, mean 59°), 100,000 trees, from 100 to 800 quintals.

74. **Otto Becker & Co., Sucs.,** Plant. La Mata, St. Miranda, Dist. Ricaurte; *tierra templada,* 100,000 trees, 500 quintals.

75. **Luis Rivero,** Plant. El Guanábano, Fed. District; *tierra caliente,* 100,000 trees, 500 quintals.

76. **Gualterio Chitty,** Plant. La Julia, St. Miranda, Distr. Vargas (Carayaca); *tierra templada,* 95,000 trees, from 100 to 600 quintals.

77. **Victor Rodriguez,** Plant. La Providencia, St. Miranda, Dist. Guaicaipuro; *tierra fria,* 80,000 trees, 800 to 900 quintals.

78. **Manuel Castillo,** Plant. Santa Ana, St. Miranda (Aragua); *tierra templada,* 86,000 trees, 800 quintals.

79. **Rodriguez Castillo Hermanos,** Plant. La Esperanza, St. Miranda (Aragua); *tierra templada,* 150,000 trees, 1,000 quintals.

80. **Carlos M. Madriz,** Plant. Rinconada de Coche, Fed. District; *tierra templada,* 250,000 trees, 1,500 quintals.

81. **Alejo T. Lozada.**

82. **Manuel Felipe Garcia,** Plant. El Carmen, St. Miranda, Sect. Bolivar; *tierra fria,* 60,000 trees, 200 to 300 quintals.

83. **Carlos Alberto Urbaneja and Luis Alberto Sucre,** Plant. El Parnaso, St. Miranda, Sect. Bolivar; *tierra fria,* 160,000 trees, 800 quintals.

84. **J. A. Mosquera,** Plant. La Guia, Fed. District; *tierra templada,* 100,000 trees, 1,000 quintals.

85. **G. de Laloubie,** Plant. El Roble, St. Miranda, Dist. Sucre; *tierra templada,* 200,000 trees, 600 quintals.

86. **Perfecto Gamez,** Plant. Sucuta, St. Miranda, Sect. Bolivar; *tierra fria,* 50,000 trees, 200 quintals.

87. **Juan Diaz Chaves,** Plant. Caricuao Adentro, Fed. District; *tierra fria,* 300,000 trees, 1,500 quintals.

88. **Manuel F. Acevedo,** Plant. Tovar, St. Miranda, Sect. Bolivar; *tierra templada,* 100,000 trees, 500 quintals.

89. **Gualterio Chitty,** Plant. La Lola, St. Miranda, Dist. Vargas (Carayaca); *tierra templada,* 12,000 trees, from 30 to 100 quintals (this is a very young plantation).

90. **José Houtman,** Plant. El Rosario, St. Miranda, Sect. Bolivar; *tierra caliente,* 80,000 trees, 300 quintals.

91. **Vicente A. Betancourt Aramburu,** Plant. La Elvira, St. Miranda, Dist. Ricaurte; *tierra templada,* 256,000 trees, 800 to 1,000 quintals.

92. **Juan B. Mosquera,** Plant. El Socorro, St. Miranda, Dist. Sucre; *tierra fria,* 500,000 trees, 1,500 quintals.

93. **M. Bartolucci**, Plant. La Florentina, St. Bermudez, Sect. Cumaná; *tierra templada*, 40,000 trees, 400 quintals.

94. **Rafael Gabaldón**, Plant. La Paz, St. Los Andes, (Mérida); *tierra caliente*, 20,000 trees, 19,000 kilogr.

95. **Pedro Villaroel**, Plant. Santa Inés, St. Bermudez, Sect. Cumaná; *tierra templada*, 12,000 trees, 120 quintals.

96. **Avelino Briceño**, Plant. San José, Mérida; *tierra caliente*, 50,000 trees, 1,000 quintals.

97. **R. Quesada**, Plant. El Norte, St. Miranda, Dist. Sucre; *tierra templada*, 250,000 trees, 1,500 quintals.

98. **José M. Santaella**, Plant. La Concepción, St. Miranda (Aragua); *tierra fria*, 100,000 fruiting trees and 120,000 young ones, 600 to 700 quintals.

99. **Pedro A. Garcia**, Plant. La Trinidad, St. Miranda (Aragua); *tierra fria*, 100,000 fruiting trees and 50,000 young ones, 500 quintals.

100. **Carlos Alberto Urbaneja**, Plant. Sagüino (Aguanegra), Fed. District; *tierra fria*, 200,000 trees, 1,000 quintals.

101. **Luis Ustariz**, Plant. Santa Rosa, St. Miranda, Pao de Zárate; *tierra templada*, 150,000 trees, 800 quintals.

102. **Juan Pablo Perez**, Plant. Jesús, St. Miranda, Sect. Bolivar; *tierra fria*, 130,000 trees, 500 quintals.

103. **Antonio Rios**, Plant. Monte Carmelo, Carabobo (Montalbán); *tierra templada*, 300,000 trees, 3,000 quintals.

104. **Utalis La Roche**, Plant. Rincon, St. Carabobo, Dist. Puerto Cabello; *tierra caliente*, 30,000 trees.

105. **León Santella**, Plant. Agua Clara, St. Bermudez, Sect. Cumaná; *tierra templada*, 80,000 trees, 800 quintals.

106. **Prisco Lares**, Plant. San Antonio, Mérida, *tierra templada* (temp. from 64° to 70°), 50,000 trees, 750 quintals.

107. **Federico Salas**, Plant. La Florida, Mérida; *tierra templada*, 52,000 trees, 700 quintals.

108. **Blohm & Co.**, Coffee in "pergamino," Plant. Tiara, St. Miranda (Aragua); *tierra templada*, 300,000 trees, 1,200 quintals.

COCOA.—Cocoa (or cacao, as the name more properly ought to be spelled), from which the chocolate of commerce is made, is the seed of a tree (*Theobroma Cacao*) indigenous to several countries in tropical America. It grows to an average height of 18 feet with a trunk from 5 to 8 inches in diameter. The tree requires for its full development a mean temperature of 25° to 26° C. (80° F.), a moist soil, and a humid atmosphere, and so the lands along the Caribbean coast, bedewed by the vapors rising from the sea and irrigated by the numerous rivulets that course down the mountain-valleys, are found to be in all respects well adapted to the profitable cultivation of cocoa.

A cocoa plantation is laid out in quite the same manner as an apple orchard. No particular preparation of the soil is necessary and no manures are applied. One acre of land will accomodate about 150 trees, which must be protected from the sun by shade-trees. Whilst they are young, the banana is used for this purpose, and afterwards a species of *bucare* (*Erythrina umbrosa*). Seven or eight years after planting the cocoa-trees begin to bear two crops per year, ripening in June and December. The average age of the tree is about 35 years, during which time the crop will yield 600 to 700 pounds of merchantable cocoa annually per acre.

The fruits are oval-shaped with longitudinal ribs and similar in appearance to muskmelons. Some are of a yellowish color, but generally they assume a dark-reddish hue on ripening. Each fruit contains some sixty or eighty seeds imbedded in a slimy pulp. After being taken out they are either cleaned and gradually dried, or previously spread out on large court-yards covered with a kind of red earth or brick-dust, which adheres to the seeds and gives them their red color. It is generally believed that cocoa treated in this manner keeps longer and is much less exposed to the attacks of insects.

In properly prepared cocoa the parchment-like seed-coat will burst easily when the grain is broken, and the interior, consisting of the cotyledons or seed-leaves, is of a uniform, dark-brown color without any whitish spots.

There are several varieties of cocoa in cultivation, the two principal ones being the *cacao trinitario* and the *cacao criollo*. The former is more vigorous, yields larger crops, and resists better any unfavorable weather as well as the attacks of insects. But the grains are smaller, harder, and more flattened than those of the *cacao criollo* and have, moreover, a more bitter taste. The best and finest *cacao criollo* comes especially from the coast east and west of Puerto Cabello, though it goes in commerce generally under the name of "Caracas Cocoa." It is undoubtedly superior to most other kinds of cocoa, and so much esteemed that seeds have been solicited repeatedly for the government plantations of cocoa in Ceylon, Java, and other East Indian islands.

Venezuela exports annually from 18 to 20 million pounds of cocoa of an approximate value of $2,000,000. Most of the exportation goes to Spain, France, and Germany; in the United States the demand is steadily increasing, in spite of the heavy duty to be paid. The use of cocoa is indeed becoming everywhere so extensive that it must soon be as universally a staple article of consumption as coffee and tea.

A List of Samples of Cocoa exhibited, with short remarks on the plantations mentioned.

109. **Pablo M. Aurrecoechea,** Plant. Ibarra, State of Carabobo, Sect. Puerto Cabello; 18,000 trees, annual produce 130 fanegas (a *fanega* is equal to 1.6 bushels).

110. **Pio Acevedo,** Plant. Acevedo, State of Miranda, Sect. Bolivar; 40,000 trees, 300 fanegas.

111. **Baldomero Sosa,** Plant. Santa Clara, State of Miranda (Aragua); 30,000 trees, 300 fanegas.

112. **Juan Pablo Perez,** Plant. Santa Ana, State of Miranda, Sect. Bolivar; 40,000 trees, 300 fanegas.

113. **Domingo Luciani,** Rio Caribe, Plantations Santa Rosa, Caratal, and Catuaro. The owner gives the following description of the different classes of cocoa exported by him: $D_{00}L$, Cocoa Santa Rosa, in its natural red color, annual produce 9,000 to 15,000 kils., price per 50 kils. $28 Venez. currency (the kilogr. is equal to 2.2 pounds, the Venez. *peso* has 4 *bolivars*, each equal to .1923 in U. S. currency);—D_0L, Cocoa Santa Rosa, colored with red earth from Choroní, 18,000 to 24,000 kils., price the same;—D_1L, Cocoa Caratal, in its natural red color, 48,000 to 60,000 kils., price $23;—$D_2L$, Cocoa Caratal, slightly colored with red earth from Choroni, 30,000 to 48,000 kils., price $23;—$D_3L$, Cocoa Catuaro, colored with red earth, 48,000 to 72,000 kils., price $22;—$D_4L$, Cocoa "residuo," in its natural color, 4,800 to 7,200 kils., price $18;—$D_5L$, the

same colored with red earth, 4,800 to 7,200 kils., price $18. Prices to be understood free of all charges on board in Rio Caribe.

114. Manuel Pimentel Otero, Plant. Payare, State of Miranda (Choroni); 10,000 trees, 60 fanegas.

115. C. Hellmund & Co., Plant. Los Caracas, State of Miranda, Sect. Bolivar; 25,000 trees, 200 fanegas.

116. Cocoa from the plantation La Vega.

117. I. Orsini & Sons, Plantations Tunapuy, Pilar, Chaguaramas, Rincon, etc., State of Bermudez (Carúpano); 30,000 trees, 30,000 pounds per year.

118. Raimundo Fonseca, Plant. Los Monjes, El Deleite, La Fundación, Casa Grande, in the State of Carabobo (Ocumare); 200,000 full-grown and 120,000 young trees, 1,700 fanegas (at 110 pounds each).

119. Guillermo Roo, Plant. San Esteban (Puerto Cabello); 30,000 trees, 200 to 250 fanegas.

120. Victorio Palacio, Plant. La Ascensión, State of Miranda, Sect. Bolivar; 32,000 trees, 250 fanegas.

121. José A. Hernandez, Plant. Playa Grande, State of Miranda (Choroní); 50,000 trees, 400 fanegas.

122. Trinidad Constantino Arroyo, Plant. Mateo, State of Miranda (Caucagua); 15,000 to 20,000 trees, 60 fanegas.

123. Cocoa from Capiricual, State of Bermudez, Sect. Barcelona.

124. Bernardino M. Ruiz, Plant. Longa España, State of Miranda, Sect. Bolivar (Naiguatá); 37,000 full-grown and 15,000 young trees, 250 fanegas.

125. Bernardino M. Ruiz, Plant. Uritapo, State of Miranda, Sect. Bolivar; 30,000 trees, 200 fanegas.

126. Federico Roo, Plant. Solórzano, State of Carabobo (Puerto Cabello); 20,000 trees, 200 fanegas.

127. Cocoa of Santa Fé (Cumaná).

128. " " San Filipe, exhib. R. Ricart.

129. " " Buria, R. Ricart.

130. " " Carúpano.

131. " " Rio Chico.

132. " " Higuerote.

133. " " Capaya.

134. " " Caucagua.

135. CHOCOLATE. Exhib. Luis Rus, "Al Indio," Caracas.

136. " Exhib. Fullié & Co., "La India," Caracas. Wholesale prices per Spanish pound (460 grammes): Extra Vainilla, Bol. 3.50; Prima Vainilla, Bol. 2.25; Pure Cocoa (unsweetened chocolate), Bol. 2.25 (one *bolivar* equal to one franc); packing, shipping, and freight to be paid by the buyer.

137. CHOCOLATE. Exhib. B. Gregorio Perez, "La Tropical," Caracas.

CLASS 48. TOBACCO IN THE LEAF.

138. TOBACCO. Capadure.

139. " Guanape, 3d class.

140. " " 2d "

141. " Cordillera "aplanchado."

142. **TOBACCO.** Cordillera guanape, 2d class.
143. " " " 1st "
144. " Capadare, 2d class.
145. " " 1st "
146. " Maturín, 1st class
147. " Cocorote.

It is reckoned that about 7,000 hectares of land are given up to the cultivation of tobacco in Venezuela, each containing 15,000 plants and yielding an annual produce of 750 kilogr., value $160, which gives a total produce of 5,250,000 kilogr., value $1,120.000. About 12 per cent. of this quantity are exported, chiefly to Germany, the remainder is consumed in the country. Capadare tobacco is considered the best class (price about $40 per 100 lbs.); it has its name from a place situated between Puerto Cabello and Coro. Guanape is a little town in the eastern part of the State of Bolivar.

CLASS 50. CHEWING TOBACCO.

148. **Martinez & Correa,** Valencia; chewing tobacco.
149. **Hermanos Romero Garcia,** Valencia; chewing tobacco.
150. **Leonardo Garcia,** Valencia; chewing tobacco.
151. Chewing tobacco from San Felipe, Yaracuy.

CLASS 51. CIGARS AND SNUFF.

152. **J. M. Zerpa,** Cumaná; cigars.
153. **José L. Aristeguieta,** Valencia; cigars.
154. **J. Ant. Barela,** Valencia; cigars.
155. **Isaac Chapman,** Coro; snuff.

CLASS 58. FIBERS.

156. **PITA-HEMP,** called *cocuiza* in Venezuela, is prepared from the long and thick leaves of several species of *Fourcroya* (*F. gigantea, F. cubensis,* and *F. viripara*). These plants grow in dry and waste places, without any care and help of man. The fibres are sometimes over 4 feet in length, they are thickest in the middle (0.15 to 0.40 millim.). Under ordinary circumstances they contain about 12 per cent. of water, and 36 per cent. when fully saturated. Their ash amounts to 2 per cent. of the weight burnt; it is white, and contains many crystals of oxalate of lime. The fibre is light, so that cordage made of it swims on the water. Unfortunately its flexibility is not very great, and still less so is the resistance against torsion. Much *cocuiza* is prepared in the Barquisimeto, Coro, and the Andes, where it is called *fique*. It is used especially for making bagging, hammocks, halters, cordage, etc., samples of which may be seen in the exhibit.

157. **MAJAGUA,** the fibrous inner bark of *Paritium tiliaceum,* of which a kind of ordinary cordage is made.

158. **MORICHE-FIBER,** from the leaves of a palm, *Mauritia flexuosa,* which grows abundantly in the Delta of the Orinoco and similar places. They are used for making reins and cordage.

159. **PALM-LEAVES** (mostly from several species of *Carludovica*), used for plaiting hats.

160. COTTON, from Barcelona. Cotton is little cultivated, and only for domestic use.

161. YELLOW COTTON, Island of Margarita.

162. WOOL OF THE SPINY SILK-COTTON TREE (*Eriodendron anfractuosum*). Used like the other kinds of silk cotton. (Exhib. Nat. Mus., Caracas.)

163. FRUITS AND SILK OF THE SILK-COTTON TREE (*Ochroma lagopus*). The silk is only for the stuffing of pillows, as it does not allow of being spun. (Exhib. Nat. Mus., Caracas.)

164. SIBUCARA WOOL (*Bombax*). Used like the other kinds of vegetable wool. (Exhib. Nat. Mus., Caracas).

165. LANA DEL TAMBOR, the silky wool which envelops the seeds of *Bombax cumanensis*. It can not be spun, but is used for making pillows. (Exhib. Nat. Mus., Caracas.)

166. LANA DE ENEA, the exceedingly soft wool which wholly envelops the flowers of a species of flag-tail (*Typha angustifolia*, var. *dominicensis*); it is used for the stuffing of pillows. The rhizoma of the plant contains a considerable quantity of starch. (Exhib. Nat. Mus., Caracas.)

167. FRAILEJON (different species of *Espeletia*, growing on the *páramos* in the highest parts of the Cordillera of Mérida, 3,500 to 4,500 meters over sea-level). The leaves of these curious plants are densely covered by very soft wool, which, being a bad conductor of heat, protects the plant against the excessive cold to which it is exposed. (Exhib. Nat. Mus., Caracas.)

168. SILK-COTTON, the beautiful glossy seed-hairs of *Calotropis gigantea*, an East Indian asclepiad, and perfectly naturalized in Venezuela. It has been tried to use them for a kind of woven fabric; they are, however, too brittle and do not give a good thread. (Exhib. Nat. Mus., Caracas.)

169. SILK-WOOL OF OROZUZ (*Ibatia muricata*). An asclepiadaceous climber, which yields a milky juice, said to be a good pectoral. The seed-hairs are too brittle and can not be spun. (Exhib. Nat. Mus., Caracas.)

170. VEGETABLE HORSEHAIR (*Tillandsia usneoides*). A well-known stuffing material, common to all tropical and sub-tropical climates.

171. ESTROPAJO. The inner part of the fruit of *Luffa cilindrica*. When bleached, they are known as Vegetable Sponge and used for washing. (Exhib. Gov't of Venezuela.)

172. Chiquechique: this is the piassava fiber, obtained from a palm-tree (*Attalea funifera*). Brooms are made of it, and also cables and other cordage, which are much used on board the vessels navigating the Orinoco.

GROUP 10—MINERAL WATERS.—CLASS 64.

173. ALCALINE WATER from Baibacoa (Coro).

174. " " from Caujaro (Coro).

175. " " from Guadelupe (Coro). This water contains chloride of sodium 0.344; sulph of soda 0.690; bicarbonate of soda 0.771; carbonate of iron 0.318; carb. of lime 0.148; silicon 0.371 (total 2.642 grammes per liter). Exhib. Isaac Chapman, Coro.

176. MINERAL WATER (bicarbonate of soda), from Cumaná.
177. " " (sulph. of soda), from Cumaná.

GROUP 11—WHISKIES, CIDER, LIQUEURS, AND ALCOHOL.—CLASS 67. RUM.

178. David E. Montiel, Puerto Cabello; rum and rum "Cristal."
179. F. Olivares, Barquisimeto; rum "Cocui" and "Recuelo de Cocui" (made from the juice of the *Agave Americana*).
180. Isaac Chapman, Coro; old rum.
181. " " brandy.
182. José Ant. Ramos, Cumaná; rum Cumaná.
183. Victor Diaz, Puerto Cabello; rum.
184. J. Orsini é Hijos, Carúpano; rum Giamarchi.
185. Manuel G. Planchart, Barcelona; rum.
186. M. M. Gonzalez & Co., Carúpano; rum.
187. Sucesión Marcano, Barcelona; rum.
188. Eduardo Ramirez, O., Maracaibo; five classes of rum.
189. Marturet & Mosquera, Caracas; rum Mahoma.
190. " " " brandy.
191. Manuel E. Mirabal, San Fernando de Atabapo; rum "Guanayana."

CLASS 68. ALCOHOL.

192. Marturet & Mosquera, Caracas; alcohol neutro.
193. Bernardo Perez, Cumaná; alcohol 36°.
194. " " " " 40°.
195. R. Soucy & Co., Caracas; ordinary sugar brandy.
196. " " " rectified alcohol.

CLASS 69. CORDIALS AND LIQUEURS.

197. Ed. Ramirez, O., Maracaibo; Anisado.
198. Marturet & Mosquera, Caracas; gin.
199. I. Chapman, Coro; Anisete.
200. " " Crema vainilla.
201. " " Curazao.
202. " " Crema café.
203. " " Crema cacao.

CLASS 70. BITTERS.

204. Miguel M. Herrera, Caracas; ron bitters.
205. Luis Carrera Mayz, Carúpano; aromatic bitters.
206. I. Chapman, Coro; aromatic bitters.
207. Juan E. Falangón, ; aromatic bitters.
208. Guill. E. Mönch, Ciudad Bolivar; Amargo de Ciudad Bolivar.
209. P. Elias Marcano, ; aromatic bitters.
210. F. Varguillas, San Felipe; aromatic bitters.
211. Andres E. Meaño, Cumaná; aromatic bitters.

212. Miguel M. Herrera, Caracas; aromatic bitters "Bolivar."
213. " " " cocktail Americano.

GROUP 17—MISCELLANEOUS ANIMAL PRODUCTS.—CLASS 91. HIDES AND SKINS, ETC.

214. SKIN OF JAGUAR (*Felis onza*).
215. " CUNUGUARO (*Felis macrura*).
216. " FOX (*Canis azaræ*).
217. " WEASEL ((*Galictis macrura*).
218. " SQUIRREL (*Sciurus æstuans*).
219. " AGUTI (*Dasyprocta aguti*).
220. " OPOSSUM (*Didelphys cancrivora*).
221. " SLOTH (*Bradypus torquatus*).
222. " BOA CONSTRICTOR, 20 feet 3 inches long.

223. COCHINEAL (*Coccus cacti*). The dried bodies of the females of a homopterous insect, which lives on several species of prickly pear, principally *Opuntia coccinellifer* and *O. tuna*. It is used for making carmine.

224. GROUND-PEARLS, known in the country by the name of "huevos de hachaco," *i. e.*, ants' eggs. They are, however, the larval capsules of *Porphyrophora margarodes*, an insect belonging to the coccidæ, order of homopteræ. The animal lives in sandy and marly soil, feeding on the roots of certain grasses. (Exhib. Nat. Mus., Caracas.)

GROUP 18.—FATS, OILS, SOAPS, ETC.—CLASS 95. ANIMAL OILS.

225. TURTLE OIL from the eggs of *Peltocephalus tracaxa* and *Podocnemis expansa;* both are abundant in the Orinoco river, and known in the country under the names of *terecai* and *arrau*.

CLASS 96. VEGETABLE OILS, WITH THE SEEDS.

226. OIL OF PIÑON (*Yatropha Curcas*), exhib. Charles Boissellier, Carúpano.

227. COCOA-NUT OIL (*Cocos nucifera*). A well-known oil obtained by pressure from the endosperm of the seed. Large quantities of it are made in Cumaná for soap-manufactures.

228. COCO-NUT OIL. Exhib. F. Serrano, Cumaná.

229. COCO-NUTS in the husk, and without it.

230. AJONJOLI (*Gingilie*). The seeds of *Sesamum indicum;* they yield an oil similar to olive oil, and are also roasted and pounded in cold water for making a beverage which has the property of increasing the secretion of milk in nursing women. The plant is cultivated in some parts of Venezuela.

231. OIL of the same.

232. CASTOR-OIL SEEDS (*Ricinus communis*). From these seeds the well known castor-oil is extracted by pressure.

233. SECUA (*Fevillæa scandens*, a cucurbitaceous climber). The seeds contain a considerable quantity of colorless oil, said to be very excellent for protecting polished steel and iron implements from rusting.

234. **MANI** (Earth Peas, or Ground Nuts); the pods of *Arachis hypogaa*, which have the curious peculiarity to ripen under ground. The seeds are eaten after being slightly roasted; they also yield a sweet oil, largely used in Europe for adulterating olive-oil.

235. **CRAB-OIL** (*Carapa guianensis*). The seeds of this meliaceous tree which is very abundant in Guayara contain about 70 per cent. of an excellent oil for soap-manufacture.

236. **SEJE-OIL**, from the seeds of a palm (*Oenocarpus bataua*), which grows in the Delta of the Orinoco and in the Territory Amazonas. It is said to be an infallible remedy against consumption. (Exhib. Dr. Franc. de P. Reyes, ex-Governor of the Territory Delta).

237. **SEJE-OIL.** Exhib. Blanco Zerpa, Cumaná.

238. **SASSAFRAS OIL.** (*Acroclidium chrysophyllum*) from Barquisimeto.

239. **CUAJO** (*Myristica punctata*). The bark is somewhat aromatic and used as an anti-rheumatic; the fruits contain a fat, of which candles are made.

CLASS 97. SOAPS.

240. **F. Serrano**, Cumaná; common soap.

241. **Ch. Boissellier**, Carúpano; Coco-nut oil soap.

242. **R. Soucy & Co.**, Carara; toilet soap.

CLASS 98. WAX.

243, 244, 245. **BEES'-WAX.** The yellow and white wax is the produce of *Apis ligurica*, introduced in the country since 1856, and now completely acclimatized. The black wax is made by a species of *Melipona*, which is indigenous. Prices, white wax 80 cents, yellow wax 70, black wax $1 a pound. Foreign white wax pays 25 cents duty per kilogr., and yellow wax about 15 cents.

246. **BLACK WAX** from the Territory "Delta del Orinoco." (Exhib. the Governor of the Territory.)

GROUP 19—FOREST PRODUCTS.—CLASS 101. ORNAMENTAL WOODS.

247. **ACAPRO** (*Tecoma* spec.) A tree of from 20 to 25 meters high, trunk 6 to 8 meters, girth 0.80 to 1.20 meters. Specific weight of dry wood 1.25. It is almost indestructible but difficult to work.

248. **ACEITE** (*Copaifera officinalis*). Height of tree 10 to 15 meters, trunk 4 to 5, girth 0.60 to 0.75 meters. Wood of a yellowish red color; spec. weight 0.75.

249. **ACEITUNO** (botanical name unknown). Barquisimeto.

250. **ACHIVARE** (*Ficus dendrocida*). The tree is also called "matapalo," *i. e.*, "tree-killer," on account of its growing on and around other trees which it slowly strangles to death in proportion as its aerial roots develop round the supporting stem. The wood is of little value.

251. **ACO** (*Lonchocarpus punctatus*). Height of tree 10 to 15 meters, trunk 4 to 5, girth 0.60 to 0.75; specific weight of wood 0.75. The wood is strong and tough, of a darkish color with some lighter veins; it keeps well under water.

252. AGUACATE (*Persea gratissima*). A fine-grained wood of reddish color, sometimes with some darker veins, not very hard, specific weight 0.65. The tree is cultivated for its fruit, and attains a height of from 12 to 15 meters, trunk 4 to 5, circumference 0.75 to 1.20.

253. AGUACATILLO (*Persea* spec.). The wood is used in boat-building and for making furniture. Logs of 16 inches square are not uncommon.

254. AJICITO (*Capparis pachaca*). A small tree with a light-colored wood of not much hardness, used for cabinet work.

245. ALBARICOQUE (botanical name not known). A fine-grained wood, not very hard, used for cabinet work.

256. ALCORNOQUE (*Bowdichia virgilioides*). The tree is low and has generally a somewhat stunted appearance. Its wood is very hard and durable; the sap-wood is whitish, the heart-wood is almost black, showing grayish spots on the cross-section. Specific weight 1.08. Very common in the Llanos or Plains of the interior.

257. ALGARROBO (*Hymenæa courbaril*). A very hard and heavy wood (specific weight 0.95), of dark yellowish color with some greenish veins; it has straight fibers and is free of knots, so that it can be easily worked. It is especially used for crushing wheels and similar things in coffee estates. Height of tree 20 to 25 meters, of trunk 7 to 8, girth 0.75 to 1.20

258. AMARGO (botanical name not known). Barquisimeto.

259. ANDA-ARRIBA (botanical name not known). Coro, Maracaibo.

260. ANGELINO (*Homalium racemosum*). The wood is of olive color, not very hard, has straight fibers and a specific weight of 0.85. Height of tree 20 to 25 meters, of trunk 6 to 8, circumference 0.90 to 1.20.

261. APAMATE (*Tabebuya* spec.). A tolerably good wood for building, however not very durable. Height of tree 15 to 20 meters, of trunk 5 to 8, circumference 0.90 to 1.10.

262. ARAGUANEY (*Tecoma spectabilis*). The heart-wood is of great hardness, of a dark olive color, and has a specific weight of 1.25. Height of tree 20 to 25 meters, of trunk 6 to 8, circumference 0.75 to 1.20. The flowers are precocious, that is to say appear before the leaves.

263. ASPAI (*Myrodia turbinata*). A fine-grained and light-colored wood, easy to work and used by cabinetmakers. The tree grows in the eastern States (Camaná, Maturín, Guyana).

264. AZAHARITO (*Tabernæmontana* sp.). A strong and hard wood, of a yellowish red color, slightly veined with grayish green. The fibers are somewhat interwoven, so that it splits with great difficulty. Specif. weight 0.92. Barquisimeto.

265. BALAUSTRE (*Centrolobium robustum*). Wood red-colored with dark veins; it is easily worked and takes a good polish. Much used for cabinet-work, also for house and ship-building. Height of tree 25 m., of trunk 8 to 10, girth 3 to 4; specif. weight of wood 0.75. The tree is also known by the name of *cartan*.

266. BEJUCO DE CADENA (*Schnella splendens*). Remarkable for its flattened stems, which when young are exceedingly flexible and used as thongs. The Spanish name signifies "chain-vine," in allusion to this property.

267. BERRACO (*Tabernæmontana psychotriæfolia*). The wood is fibrous, not very hard, and of an olive color, sometimes with darker veins; specif. weight 0.60; it is easily worked and takes a good polish. Height of tree 8 to 10 m., of trunk 3 to 4, girth 0.75 to 1.00.

268. BIROTE (botanical name not known, but probably a *bignoniacea*). Wood very hard and durable, and much used for under-ground work. Specif. weight 0.95.

269. BORRACHO (*Piscidia Erythrina*). A light wood which, however, resists the attacks of insects, on account of a poisonous substance contained in the sap. It is used for ordinary cabinet-work.

270. BOSÚA (*Zanthoxylum ochroxylum*). Wood yellow and not very hard, with many pores and narrow medullary rays. The tree is of medium size and grows everywhere.

271. BUJURITO (botanical name not known). Not very abundant, but of a good size and yielding useful timber.

272. CABIMBO (*Protium insigne*). A light and somewhat resinous wood, suitable for all kind of work not exposed to dampness. The tree attains very large dimensions.

273. CACHICAMO (botanical name not known). A large tree, which gives boards of from 12 to 24 inches broad. The wood is useful for ship-building, being almost indestructible under water.

274. CACHIMBO (botanical name not known). A small tree, or large shrub, with a wood hard like bone, formerly used by the Indians for making their short tobacco-pipes.

275. CAIMITO (*Chrysophyllum cainito*). The wood is of dark brown color and rather hard, but rarely used. Barcelona.

276. CANALÍ (botanical name unknown). Barquisimeto.

277. CANALETE (*Aspidosperma excelsum*). The tree grows to a height of from 25 to 30 meters, with a trunk of 8 to 10 meters, and is sometimes one meter thick. The lower part of the trunk is generally surrounded by large buttresses. It is abundant in the forests of Maracaibo and Guiana. The wood is yellowish-gray, easy to work when fresh, but getting harder when it dries. The fibers run very straight, so that it splits easily. It is much used for making oars and paddles.

278. CANDELERO (*Oreopanax capitatum*). Wood whitish, rather soft and light. Barcelona.

279. CANOITO (botanical name not known). A tree that grows rather abundantly in the States of Coro and Barquisimeto, and furnishes good beams and rafters.

280. CAÑADA (botanical name not known). A very large tree. The wood is especially used in ship-building; it is yellowish with many darker veins, very strong and compact, and deserves to be better known, as it is certainly one of the finest cabinet woods. Maracaibo.

281. CAÑAFÍSTOLA MACHO (*Cassia brasiliensis*). Wood somewhat reddish, of medium hardness and weight, but not much used. The tree is a glorious sight when covered by thousands of its golden yellow flowers.

282. CAÑAGUATO (botanical name unknown). Barquisimeto.

283. CAOBA (*Swietenia Mahagoni*). The well-known mahagony-wood. The tree attains a height of from 20 to 25 meters, whilst its trunk measures sometimes 8 to 10 meters, with a girth of from 1.50 to 2.50. Specific weight of wood 0.82.

284. CAÓBANO (*Brunella comocladifolia*). Wood somewhat similar to mahagony, though of inferior quality ; it is principally used for boards and sheathing.

285. CAÓBANO BLANCO (*Guarea Ruagea*). Wood yellowish white, rather light and of little hardness ; used especially for boxes.

286. CARACOLÍ (*Anacardium rhinocarpus*). A very large tree, the wood, however, is not very valuable, and used especially for making boats and canoes, also for boxes.

287. CARITIVANO (a species of *Rutaceæ*). The tree is rather abundant in the forests of Maracaibo, and attains large dimensions. The wood is fine grained, white as ivory, but getting a yellowish hue after long exposure to air.

288. CARÁNGANO (botanical name not known). Maracaibo.

289. CARTÁN. (See Balaustre).

290. CARNE ASADA (*Rhopala complanata*). Wood reddish, fibers somewhat wavy and rather thick ; specific weight 0.93. Used for cabinet-work, but not very easily worked.

291. CATATÍ (botanical name not known). From the forests of Cumaná.

292. CAUDERO (botanical name not known). Maracaibo.

293. CAUJARO (*Cordia alba*). A tolerably good wood for building purposes, which, however, does not stand well humidity. The tree attains a height of from 12 to 15 meters, its trunk 4 to 5, with a girth of from 0.75 to 1.00.

294. CEDRO AMARGO (*Cedrela odorata*). The bitter cedar wood is perhaps the one which is more frequently used for ordinary cabinet-work than any other, owing to its being so very easily worked and proof against the attacks of all kinds of insects.

295. CEDRO DULCE (*Bursera altissima*). Wood somewhat resinous, light and rather spongy; it is used for boards, sheathing, etc. The tree is of very large dimensions.

296. CEIBO (several species of *Bombax* and *Eriodendron*). All are very large trees, growing very fast; the wood is soft and light, and used especially for making large dug-out canoes.

297. CENICERO (*Pera tomentosa*). Wood of a grayish red color with darker veins, rather hard, of a fibrous texture, but fine grained; specific weight 0.80. It is a very handsome cabinet wood. Height of tree 10 to 12 meters, of trunk 3 to 5, girth 0.75 to 1.20.

298. CHIPORORO (botanical name unknown). Barquisimeto.

299. CHIRIPA (botanical name not known). From the forests of Cumaná.

300. CLAVELLINO (*Cæsalpinia clavellino*). From Barquisimeto.

301. CLAVITO (*Erythroxylon* spec.). Used especially for making walking-sticks.

302. CLEMÓN (*Thespesia populnea*). A small tree yielding a handsome wood which is easily worked and takes a good polish. Rather uncommon.

303. COCO DE MONO (several species of *Lecythis*). High trees with a reddish yellow wood, which is rather hard and heavy, and used as well for building purposes, as for cabinet-work.

304. CONGRINA (botanical name not known). Abundant and very suitable for building purposes especially under ground. It gives square logs of 20 inches each side.

305. COPAIBA (See Aceite).

306. COPEY (*Clusia rosea*). Wood of a reddish color, rather heavy (specific weight 0.80), but little used.

307. CRUCETA REAL (*Thevetia neriifolia*). Wood soft, but rather durable. Barcelona.

308. CUCHARO (See Paraguatán).

309. CURARIRE (appears to belong to the *bignoniacea*). Color gray with dark veins; it splits easily and is rather hard and very durable. Maracaibo, Barquisimeto.

310. CUSPA (*Galipea cusparia*). Of whitish yellow color, rather heavy and strong; specific weight 0.90.

311. DUROTE (*Bocoa provacensis*). A high tree with a very hard and fine-grained wood of a beautiful reddish color, which takes a splendid polish. It is one of the finest cabinet woods.

312. DAGUARO (*Cæsalpinia* spec.) Wood reddish, similar to Balaustre; excellent for building purposes and cabinet work. The tree reaches a height of about 15 meters and grows especially in the forests of Maracaibo.

313. DIVIDIVE (*Cæsalpinia coriaria*). A large tree reaching sometimes a height of 30 meters, whilst its trunk measures about 10 meters, with a girth of from 1.50 to 2.50. It grows in the hot lowlands and yields a fruit used for tanning leather. The wood is very heavy (specific weight 1.30), strong and fine grained; the sap-wood is whitish yellow, the heart-wood black and almost as hard as iron. It is used for wheels in mills and turnery-ware.

314. EBANO (*Cæsalpinia ebano* and *C. punctata*). Wood black with some veins of other colors, very strong and fine grained. Specific weight 1.15. It is common in Maracaibo, although not much used. Height of tree 20 to 25 meters, trunk 8 to 10, girth 1.00 to 2.00.

315. ECHAHUMO (See Araguaney).

316. ESTORAQUE (*Myrospermum* spec.). A large tree with an aromatic wood, which is very elastic and generally of dark brown color. It is used for staves.

317. FLOR AMARILLA (*T. chrysantha*). The wood is very much like Araguaney.

318. GATEADO (*Astronium graveolens*). The tree is also known by the names of *diomate* and *tibigaro*, especially in the western part of Venezuela. The wood is dark colored, very strong and hard, and takes a fine polish, so that it ranks among the best cabinet woods. Specific weight 1.30.

319. GRANADILLO (*Brya Ebenus*). Very hard; the sap-wood is yellowish, the heart-wood brownish. Specific weight 1.32. Barcelona.

320. GUÁCIMO (*Guazuma ulmifolia*). Of a white grayish color with a somewhat reddish hue and occasionally some dark veins; it is fibrous, not very fine grained, and comparatively light. (Specific weight 0.56). Not much used.

321. GUAIMARO (botanical name not known). A large tree growing abundantly in the forests of Maracaibo, where it is also known under the name of *charo*. The heart-wood is of a reddish color with delicate veins of other shades; the sap-wood is yellowish white with dark markings, both being of a fine-grained texture and taking a beautiful polish, so that they are very desirable for fine cabinet-work. The fruit contains an edible seed, said to be of good taste.

322. GUARATARO (*Vitex* spec.). Wood yellowish white, fine-grained, hard and strong. The tree is of a good size, but not very common.

323. GUATACARE (*Chytroma Idatimon*). A good-sized tree with a hard and rather heavy wood (specific weight 0.90), which is very elastic, of a dark-brown color, but not very strong. It is suitable for ordinary cabinet-work; however, does not stand well humidity.

324. GUAYACAN (*Guayacum officinale*). Wood exceedingly hard and tough, the fibers crossing each other, so that it does not split. The sap-wood is of a yellowish color; the heart-wood is brown with dark greenish veins and markings. Specific weight when perfectly dry 1.12 (in the fresh state 1.30 to 1.36). It is used for turnery-work, cart-axles, teeth of indented wheels, etc.

325. GUAYABITO (*Eugenia punicifolia*). A fine-grained and very strong wood of a coffee-with-milk color, and some paler veins. Specific weight 0.90.

326. GUAYABO DE MONTAÑA (*Eugenia moritziana*). A good-sized tree growing frequently in mountain forests. The wood is hard and heavy, of a yellowish color, highly elastic and very durable. It is especially used for rafters, on account of its great traverse resistance.

327. HUESITO (*Prockia Crucis*). Wood whitish, not very hard, but close-grained and pretty strong. Caracas, Carabobo, Barquisimeto.

328. LAGUNERO (*Pterocarpus Draco*). A middle-sized tree which yields a somewhat reddish wood suitable for every kind of cabinet-work.

329. LAUREL (*Nectandra laurel*).

330. LAUREL BLANCO (*Oreodaphne leucoxylon*).

331. LAUREL CAPUCHINO (*Aydendron laurel*).

332. LAUREL NEGRO (*Nectandra turbacensis*).
The wood of all these trees is strong, though not very heavy (specific weight 0.65 to 0.75), fine-grained and more or less aromatic. The color is variable. It is very durable and easily worked, and much used for cabinet-work, also for boats and larger river vessels.

333. LECHERO (*Euphorbia caracasana* and *Sapium aucuparium*). Wood whitish, soft, and light; it is little used, though it gives boards and sheathing which are not attacked by insects.

334. LIMONCILLO (*Braraisia floribunda*). Wood yellow and very fine grained, specific weight 0.65. Used for light cabinet-work.

335. MAHOMO (*Lonchocarpus* sp.). Very hard and elastic; it is much used for making jaunts of wheels. The white variety is said to be better than the dark one, which is less durable and resistant. Barcelona.

336. MAMÓN (*Melicocca bijuga*). Wood hard and heavy (specific weight 0.90), compact and close-grained, color yellowish with very narrow somewhat darker veins. It being a fruit tree, the wood is seldom made use of.

337. MAMÓN CHUSCO (botanical name not known). Maracaibo.

338. MANGLE COLORADO (*Rhizophora Mangle*). Wood red, strong, and heavy (specific weight 1.10). Much used for rafters, large quantities being shipped from Maracaibo to other parts of the coast.

339. MANTECA (botanical name not known). Rather uncommon; the wood is suitable for building purposes and cabinet-work.

340. MANZANILLA DE MONTAÑA (*Rhus juglandifolium*). Wood yellowish red and tolerably hard; specific weight 0.75. Of little use.

341. MAPURITE (*Zanthoxylon* spec). A yellowish wood which, when fresh, has a smell like that of the skunk.

342. MARA BLANCA (*Bursera Karsteniana*). Wood resinous and light, of whitish color, and not very durable. Barcelona.

343. MARA ROSADA (*Bursera heterophylla*). Very much like the last species.

344. MARFIL (See *Caritivano*).

345. MARIA (*Calophyllum Calaba*). A close-grained, yellowish wood, susceptible of a good polish. Maracaibo.

346. MECOQUE (botanical name unknown). Maracaibo.

347. MONTANAYARE (botanical name not known). Uncommon; but suitable for building purposes; gives square logs of 15 to 18 inches broad.

348. MORA (*Dimorphandra excelsa*). One of the loftiest trees in the forests of Guayana; the wood is heavier than water, dark red, close-grained and rather hard. It is used in boat-building.

349. MUCURUTÚ (*Couroupita guianensis*). A close-grained and hard wood of a handsome yellowish color; the tree grows to a very large size. Guiana, Maracaibo.

350. NABURUCONE (botanical name not known). Can only be got during the rainy season; logs of 24 inches square are not uncommon.

351. NARANJILLO (See *Limoncillo*).

352. NÍSPERO (*Achras Sapota*). Wood very strong, hard, and heavy (specific weight 1.05), of a reddish color and taking a beautiful polish. It is excellent for making staves, but little used, as the tree is much valued for its fruit.

353. ÑAURE (botanical name unknown). Barcelona.

354. OLIVO (*Jacquinia armillaris*). A yellowish, fine-grained wood, only used for small cabinet-work, the tree never growing to a considerable size.

355. PALO DE ARCO (*Tecoma* spec.). A very strong and elastic wood from the Upper Orinoco, of a dark red color ; specific weight 0.95.

356. PALO DE ROSA (*Physocalymna florida*). A very beautiful wood from the Territory Yuruary, suitable for the most elegant pieces of cabinet-work. The tree is of a very large size,

357. PALO SANO (*Guayacum sanctum*). Exceedingly hard, especially when perfectly dry. Specific weight 1.30. Barcelona.

358. PAN DE ACURE (botanical name not known), Rather uncommon ; wood used for building purposes.

359. PAN DE TRIGO (botanical name not known). Barcelona.

360. PARAGUATÁN (*Condaminea tinctorea*). A rose-colored wood, which, however, loses its color by exposure to air and light. It is not very hard and easily worked, takes also a fine polish. Height of tree 20 to 25 meters, trunk 8 to 12, girth 1.50 to 3.00.

361. PARDILLO (*Cordia gerascanthus*).

362. PARDILLO BLANCO (*C. alba*),

363. PARDILLO DE MONTE (*C. gerascanthoides*).

364. PARDILLO BOBO (*Cordia* spec.)

The different species of *Cordia* yield handsome woods, which are easily worked and take a good polish, and are therefore much used by cabinet-makers.

365. PARATURE.

366. PARATURE DE REBALSO.

367. PARATURE DE TIERRA FIRME.

Three precious woods from the Territory Amazonas, the botanical origin of which is not known.

368. PÉRFANO (botanical name unknown). Barcelona.

369. PILÓN (*Andira racemosa*). Common and suitable for building purposes and cabinet-work.

370. PUY (*Tecoma serratifolia*). Very hard and almost indestructible, specific weight 1.30. It is of a grayish color with almost black veins. It contains an acid substance, for it turns reddish-yellow when touched by an alcaline body. It is highly esteemed for building purposes, as well as for cabinet-work and turnery-ware.

371. QUIEBRAHACHA (*Cæsalpinia punctata*). Wood very hard, but the tree does not grow to a large size. Barcelona.

372. ROBLE BLANCO (*Platymiscium polystachyum*). The wood is of an inferior quality and seldom used. Caracas, Barquisimeto, etc.

373. ROBLE COLORADO (*Tecoma pentaphylla*). Very hard and heavy, of a dark red color. It is excellent for building purposes and also for cabinet-work. The tree is of large size.

374. ROSA DE MONTAÑA (*Brownea grandiceps*). Dark red with black veins and markings. very hard and fine grained, specific weight 1.05. The tree is of very large size.

375. SAMÁN (*Pithecolobium Saman*). A very large tree which yields a wood of rather middling qualities.

376. SASAFRAS (*Aeroclidium chrysophyllum*, and *Nectandra cymbarum*). Very large trees with a scented wood of excellent properties for building purposes; from the second species very large dug-out boats are made for navigating the Orinoco and the other rivers of the interior.

377. SAY (*Weinmannia Balbisiana*). Wood reddish, hard, and very fine-grained; but the tree is not common enough for its being used more frequently.

378. SEREIPO (See *Estoraque*).

379. SUSPIRO (botanical name unknown). Coro, Barquisimeto.

380. TACAMAHACA (*Protium heptaphyllum*). A resinous soft wood, which is sometimes used for boards.

381. TAGUAPIRE (botanical name unknown). Barcelona.

382. TAPARO (*Crescentia cujete*). Wood yellowish white, close-grained and rather hard and strong. The tree is of medium size, and grows all over the country.

383. TOCO (*Crataeva gynandra*). Very light and soft, generally of a whitish color, though some samples show reddish veins. Sawn into boards for boxes.

384. TOTUMILLO (botanical name not known) Said to be a large tree, which grows rather abundantly in the State of Carabobo. It is a good wood for building purposes.

385. TREE-FERNS. There are many species of tree-ferns in the flora of Venezuela, and the ligneous part of their stems is occasionally used for inlaid work in fine cabinet-making.

386. TRIBUNAL (botanical name not known). Barquisimeto.

387. TROMPILLO (*Lætia hirtella*). A good-sized tree whi 'ds an excellent wood for ordinary cabinet-work.

388. TRUENO (botanical name not known). Barquisimeto.

389. URAPE (*Bauhinia multinervia*). A fine wood of reddish color, which takes a handsome polish; the tree, however, grows seldom to a good size.

390. VERA (*Guayacum arboreum*). A large-sized tree yielding a wood similar to *Guayacán*.

391. YAQUE NEGRO (*Prosopis cumanensis*). Very tough and elastic, but not of large size. Barcelona.

392. ZAPATERO (*Peltogyne floribunda*). Color yellowish to black, very strong and rather heavy (specific weight 1.08). It is excellent for building purposes and cabinet-work.

CLASS 103. DYEING AND TANNING WOODS AND BARKS.

393. FUSTIC (*Maclura tinctorea*). Yields a well-known yellow dye, and is exported from Ciudad Bolivar, Carúpano, Barcelona, Puerto Cabello, and Maracaibo. The Barcelona wood is considered the best; it sells in France at 15 to 16 frs. per 100 kilogrs., whilst the Maracaibo wood is about 4 frs. cheaper. This latter port, however, makes the largest shipments amounting to nearly 7,000,000 kilogrs. annually.

394. BRAZIL-WOOD (*Hæmatoxylon Brasiletto*). Exported principally from Maracaibo, but getting scarce.

395. AMARILLO (*Aspidosperma Vargasii*). A large tree belonging to the family of dogbanes. The bark yields a yellow dye and contains also some tannin.

396. ONOTILLO (*Vismia ferruginea*, of the St. John's wort family). The bark yields a reddish yellow, somewhat resinous substance which can be used like gamboge.

397. RASURA DE CUCHARO. Shavings of the wood of *Condaminea tinctorea*, used for dyeing yellowish red.

398. BOSUA-BARK (*Zanthoxylum ochroxylum*). Contains berberidine and is therefore used for dyeing yellow.

399. ONOTO. The arnatto seeds (*Bixa orellana*) are covered with a deep red pulp, which hardens when dry, and being separated from the seeds forms the *arnatto* of commerce, used by dyers and varnish-makers, also for coloring cheese and butter. The South-American Indians paint their bodies with it.

400. INDIGO, though one of the staple productions of Venezuela before the cultivation of coffee became generalized, is now of very little importance, only a few thousand pounds being exported annually from Puerto Cabello. The indigo plants (*Indigofera anil* and *I. tinctorea*) are growing as weeds almost everywhere; it is nevertheless not probable that the manufacture of this commodity will come again to the front.

401. RED MANGROVE-BARK (*Rhizophora Mangle*, or Mangle colorado). It contains from 22 to 33 per cent. of tannin, according to the age of the tree, but likewise a red pigment which colors the leather. Price at La Guaira 16 to 24 dollars a ton.
(Exhib. Bocardo & Co., Caracas.)

402. DIVIDIVE. The pods of *Cæsalpinia coriaria* contain from 30 to 40 per cent. of tannin, and form an important article of exportation from several ports of the Republic (about 5,000,000 kilogr. annually), especially from Maracaibo. Nearly one-half of the exportation goes to France, where 100 kilogr. fetch more or less 25 francs, the cost price in Venezuela being about half as much.

403. GATEADO (*Astronium graveolens*, fam. Therebinthaceae). The bark contains from 25 to 30 per cent. of tannin.

404. CURTIDOR (*Weinmannia glabra*). A tree belonging to the Saxifrage family, which grows rather abundantly on all the higher mountains of the country; its bark contains about 16 per cent of tannin.

405. CURTIDOR DE SABANA (*Byrsonima spicata*, fam. of Malpighiaceæ). The bark yields from 20 to 25 per cent. of tannin; however is very rarely used.

406. SAY-BARK (*Weinmannia Balbisiana*). The bark of a small saxifragaceous tree growing on the higher mountains. It contains much tannin, and is occasionally used for tanning leather.

407. SORTIJERO (*Calypthrantes clusiæfolia*). A myrtaceous tree of rather small size, growing in the western part of the Republic (Táchira, Mérida, Trujillo); its bark is rich in tannin.

408. URAPE (*Bauhinia multinerria*, a cæsalpiniaceous tree). The bark yields a considerable quantity of tannin.

409. YAGRUMO (*Cecropia peltata*, an urticaceous tree with large fan-shaped leaves and a hollow stem). The bark may be used for tanning.

410. AGUACATE (*Persea gratissima*). The bark of this fruit-tree might be used for tanning leather.

411. CUJI (*Acacia macracantha* and other species). It is well known that the bark and fruits of many acacias are rich in tannin.

412. GUAYABO (*Psidium guava*). The bark of this well-known myrtaceous fruit-tree is very astringent and rich in tannin.

CLASS 106. GUMS, RESINS, CAOUTCHOUC.

413. ALGARROBO-RESIN (*Hymenæa courbaril*). The resin exudes from the stem and roots of the tree and is often found in a semi-fossil state in the soil. It may be used for making varnish, like copal. Exhib. T. Chapman, Coro.

414. YABO-RESIN (*Cercidium viride*). The resin exudes from the bark of the stem and branches, covering it in a continuous layer, as may be seen from the pieces of branches exhibited. It is used by soap manufacturers. The wood of the tree yields an ash containing a high percentage of potash, so that the same tree furnishes the necessary material for making an ordinary soap of good detergent properties. In some parts the tree is called *Quica*. Exhib. T. Chapman, Coro.

415. COROBORE-RESIN (also called *Algarrobo*, *Hymenæa courbaril*). May be used for making varnish, like copal.

416. PERAMÁN. A black resin obtained from *Moronobæa coccinea*, a rubiaceous tree growing in the Territory of Upper Orinoco and Amazonas; it is principally used for the calking of river boats.

417. TACAMAHACA. A resin exuding in considerable quantities from the wood of *Protium heptaphyllum*, a fast-growing tree belonging to the family of Burseraceæ. It is used in medicine as an exciting topic remedy.

418. CARAÑA. A resin very much like *tacamahaca*, and obtained from *Protium caranna*. Same use as *tacamahaca*.

419. GUAMACHO-GUM (*Peireskia guamacho*). A leaf-bearing species of the cactus family; the gum is exuded by the woody stem and yields a refreshing mucilage. Exhib. The Guanta Railway, Harbor & Coal Trust Company, Limited.

420. SANTAL-BARK. Under the name of *sándalo*, the firm of Polly & Co., of Puerto Cabello, has exported the wood and bark of what appears to be a rutaceous tree, which, however, is not botanically well known.

421. RUBBER. Some objects of rubber made by the Indians of the Orinoco. Large quantities are extracted in Guiana and the Territ. Upper Orinoco and Amazonas, and shipped either *via* Ciudad Bolivar, or sent down the Rio Negro to Pará in Brazil.

422. PEJUA (*Gaultheria Lindeniana*). A small shrub with highly aromatic leaves which grows abundantly in the mountains of Cumaná.

423. TONKA BEANS (*Dipteryx odorata*). A large tree which grows generally gregariously in certain parts of the forests of Guiana; it is also common in Brazil; however, the tonka beans from Pará are considered inferior to those from Ciudad Bolivar. In 1890 the exportation from this latter port was 79,810 kilogrs., valued Bol. 442,721 (about $85,000). The amount of beans collected varies much in different years on account of the weather.

CLASS 110. BROOMS.

424. Hermanos Romero Garcia, Valencia: brooms made of broom-corn, called *millo* in the country.

CLASS 111. BASKET INDUSTRY.

425 to 430. The flora of Venezuela has a large number of species with very flexible stems of considerable length, which furnish good material for basket-work of every description, although the articles manufactured are generally far from being elegant, and only destined for ordinary use in the rural household. We refer to the oval-shaped and round baskets *de caricillo*, made of the high-climbing stems of a bambusaceous grass (*Chusquea scandens*), the large *petacas* and smaller baskets made of the split stems of another arborescent grass (*Arundo saccharoides*), and the hand-baskets and *macutos* of the same material. Of other plants used for the same purpose we only mention the *bejuco de piragua* (a species of the aroid genus *Philodendron*), the stems of which grow to an amazing length, being throughout of no more than one-eighth of an inch in thickness, so that they look like long pieces of twine. See samples in the Exhibit.

DEPARTMENT B.

HORTICULTURE.

GROUP 21—POMOLOGY AND MANUFACTURED PRODUCTS.—CLASS 141. JELLIES, JAMS, MARMALADES.

431. PRESERVED BANANAS.

431a. QUINCE-JAM. The quince is not indigenous in Venezuela, but grows very well in the higher parts of the country. The fruit is much used for preparing this excellent kind of jam.

432. GUAVA-JAM. Prepared with the fruits of *Psidium Guava*, and highly esteemed on account of its delicate taste.

433. "BOCADILLOS." A kind of jam prepared with guava-fruits, from Mérida and other places of the Western Cordillera. Each piece is wrapped in a fragment of banana-leaf. Price, about 40 cents the pound.

DEPARTMENT E.

MINES, MINING, AND METALLURGY.

GROUP 42—MINERALS.—CLASS 290.

434. OPAL. Tinaquillo.

435. ROCK-CRYSTALS from fissures in the gneissic mountains, neighborhood of Caracas. Exhib. by Nat. Mus., Caracas.

436. CHRYSOTILE IN SERPENTINE. Barquisimeto.

437. ASBESTOS IN GNEISS. Caracas.

438. DOUBLE-REFRACTING CALCIC SPAR, from the neighborhood of Santa Lucia and Santa Teresa, on the River Tuy.

439. TALCUM, from the neighborhood of Caracas.

440. URAO (sesquicarbonate of ~~soda~~), from the bottom of the small lake of Lagunillas near Mérida. The finest quality is called *espejueto*, and sells about 80 cents a pound; it is used for preparing *chimó*, a highly condensed extract of tobacco, which is almost indispensable to the inhabitants of the Cordillera. Exhib. Nat. Mus., Caracas.

441. GAYLUSSITE, sesquicarbonate of soda and lime, from the bottom of the lake of Lagunillas near Maracaibo. It is known in the country under the name of *clavos* (*i. e., nails*), in allusion to the shape of the crystals.

CLASS 291. ORES.

442. GALENA. Barquisimeto.

443. " Caracas.

444. " Carabobo.

445. " Cumaná.

446. AURIFEROUS QUARTZ and VEIN-ROCK, from the mine El Callao, Territ. Yuruary, Guiana. The samples are exhibited in a show-case made of some of the most precious woods of Guiana. The district of Yuruary has realized to a certain degree the old fable of the famous Dorado, the amount of gold exported from 1866 to 1890 being of 70,192,400 kilogrs., valued $46,650,197, the larger part of which has been produced by the Callao mine. Exhib. the Callao Company.

447. COPPER ORE AND OTHER ORES (iron, silver, gold), from the mines of Chacao, near *Ciudad de Cura*, in the State of Miranda. Exhib. the Company.

448. Rafael Ricart. Copper and antimony with gold and silver. Barquisimeto.

449. " " Siliceous and argillaceus limestone, with some glucina, oxide of chrome, and small fibres of asbestos. Barquisimeto.

450. " " Siliceous limestone with galena. Barquisimeto.

451. " " Sulphuret of iron and copper, with antimony, silver, and some traces of gold. Barquisimeto.

452. " " Sulphuret of iron and copper, with antimony, gold and silver. Barquisimeto.

453. " " Sulphuret of iron and arsenicum. Barquisimeto.

454. " " Siliceous limestone with lead and traces of silver. Barquisimeto.

455. " " Sulphuret of copper and iron with antimony, silver and gold in small quantities. Barquisimeto.

456. " " Sulphuret of iron, with copper, antimony, gold, and silver, from the mines of Buria. Barquisimeto.

457. **MINERALS.** Copper, gold, silver, antimony, argentiferous galena, tin, sulphur, guano, niter; from different localities in the section Yaracuy of the State of Barquisimeto. Exhib. R. Ricart.

GROUP 43—MINERAL COMBUSTIBLES—CLASS 292. MINERAL COAL.

458. **MINERAL COAL,** Mines of Naricual, near Barcelona. Composition: water, 6.0; volatile substances, 43.0; carbon, 45.0; leaves, 6.0 of ashes (containing about 3.3 per 100 of iron oxide) and yields a very compact coke. Exhib. "The Guanta Railway, Harbor & Coal Trust Company, Limited."

459. **MINERAL COAL,** from the same locality. Exhib. Nat. Mus., Caracas.

360. **MINERAL COAL,** from San Fernando, near Cumanacoa, at a distance of about 35 miles from Cumaná. For further information see the printed notice which accompanies the samples exhibited.

461. **MINERAL COAL,** from Villa de Cura.

462. **MINERAL COAL,** from Cocollar, Cumaná.

463. **MINERAL COAL,** from Valle de la Pascua, Guárico. A rather indifferent kind of lignite.

464. **LIGNITE,** from Nirgua, in the State of Carabobo. Shows still much of the structure of wood which appears to be that of conifer, perhaps a species of *Podocarpus*. Exhib. Nat. Mus., Caracas.

465. **MINERAL COAL,** from Cumarebo (Coro). A very good lignite, that burns freely with a white blaze and leaves but 3.34 per cent. ash. From an analysis made some years ago by Dr. Fleck in Leipzig it contains: carbon, 61.49; hydrogen, 5.36; oxygen, 29.81. Its calorific effect is, therefore, equal to 548,155 calorics, whilst Cardiff coal gives 721,215, so that 100 tons of this latter are equal to 132.8 tons of Cumarebo coal.

466. **AZABACHE** (a kind of jet), from Tocuyo. Formerly used for making mourning ornaments.

CLASS 293. ASPHALTUM.

467 **ASPHALTUM** (chapapote), from Cumaná.

468. **SOLID ASPHALTUM,** from Maracaibo. Exhib. Nat. Mus., Caracas.

469. **LIQUID ASPHALTUM,** from Pedernales, Delta of Orinoco. Exhib. Nat. Mus., Caracas.

470. **PETROLEUM,** from Pedernales, Delta of the Orinoco. Exhib. of Nat. Mus., Caracas.

471. **MINERAL PRODUCTS,** from the asphaltum mines and petroleum wells of Pedernales, Delta of the Orinoco. *Pedernales* is the name of the most northern channel by which the Orinoco flows into the sea. A chartered company is actually working in a certain locality on its banks what appears to be a very promising deposit of asphaltum and petroleum, the outcome being highly satisfactory.

472. **PETROLEUM,** from Cumaná, near Manicuare.

473. **PETROLEUM,** from Betijoque, Mountains of Trujillo.

GROUP 44—BUILDING STONES, MARBLES, ETC.—CLASS 296.

474. MARBLE; two samples, one from the "Morro," of Valencia, the other from Puerto Cabello.

475. MARBLE, from Guanango near Borburata, at a short distance from Puerto Cabello. A rough block from the surface and several polished ones.

476. MARBLE, from Carúpano.

477. STALACTITES, Cumaná.

478. PIEDRA-SILLAR, a large-grained somewhat calcareous sandstone from the younger cretaceous formation in the mountains of Cumaná. It is used as a building stone and also for making drip-stones or water-filters.

479. SAMPLES OF STONES used now for street pavement in Caracas. It is a metamorphic limestone of great hardness, which is to be found rather abundantly in the neighborhood of the city.

GROUP 46—CLAYS AND OTHER FICTILE MATERIALS.—CLASS 304.

480. KAOLINE, or pure alumina. Island of Margarita. Exhib. Nat. Mus., Caracas.

481. KAOLINE, from Cumanacoa.

482. COMPACT KAOLINE, from Barquisimeto,

483. PIPE-CLAY, with traces of lignite and petroleum, from Cumaná.

GROUP 47—LIMESTONE, CEMENTS, AND ARTIFICIAL STONE.—CLASS 309 AND 311.

484. MAGNESIAN LIMESTONE, somewhat siliceous, and containing besides clay and oxide of iron. Barquisimeto. Exhib. Raf. Ricart.

485. Latorre Chelini & Co., Caracas. Samples of mosaic of artificial stone.

486. J. M. Herrera, Samples of terra-cotta.

487. J. Lameda, Cements.

GROUP 48—SALTS, SULPHUR, FERTILIZERS.

488. NITRE, Bermudez.

489. NATIVE FEATHER-ALUM, from Yaracuy, State of Lara.

490. SULPHUR, from the "azufrales," near Carúpano.

491. TIERRA DE CARACOLILLO, *i. e.*, shell-earth, from lands which formerly were covered by the waters of the lake of Valencia. It is a kind of clay full of small shells of molluscs (especially *Ancylus Moricandi, Hydrobia coronata, H. stagnalis, H. Ernesti, Planorbis pronus*) and a large number of sponge-spiculæ and diatomaceous shells. It is exceedingly fertile. Exhib. Nat. Mus., Caracas.

492. PHOSPHATE OF LIME, from Los Roques, a small group of islands, due north of La Guaira. Exhib. Nat. Mus., Caracas.

493. SAMPLES OF GREEN, GRAY, AND BLACK PHOSPHATIC EARTH, from the island El Gran Roque. Exhib. by the Governor of the Territory Colon.

494. PHOSPHATIC GUANO, from Aves Island. Exhib. Polly & Co., Puerto Cabello.

495. **GUANO,** from Santa Fé (Cumaná).

496. " from Aguas Blancas, Dist. Araure, State of Zamora. Exhib. José F. Roldán.

497. " from San Juan de los Morros. Exhib. Cirilo Matos.

498. **MINERAL WATER,** from "Las Trincheras." The springs are located on the northern slope of the mountain chain between Puerto Cabello and Valencia, and have a temperature of over 194 degrees, the temperature of the air being about 76 degrees. The chemical composition was investigated by Boussingault with the result that the water is sulphurous and sodic. There exists a comfortable establishment near the spring for the use of visitors, under the management of Dr. Francisco Padron.

499. **SAMPLES OF SEDIMENT** left by the water of the spring of "Las Trincheras," in the basin from which it issues.

(The other *Mineral Waters* from Venezuela are mentioned under Nos. 173 to 177 of this Catalogue.)

GROUP 49—IRON.—CLASS 322. IRON-ORES.

500. **IRON ORE FROM IMATACA.** The iron mine of Imataca is the property of Mr. Geo. Turnbull, a North American citizen. It is situated 54 miles from the "Boca Grande" of the Orinoco, in the Federal Territory "Delta," on the caño Corosimo, in 8° 29′ L. N. and 61° 18′ L. W. Grw. By analysis it was found that the ore contains from 67 to 70 per cent. of pure iron, and is to be classified as magnetic-specular iron ore (oligiste). It can be reduced without difficulty and yields a first-class steel. The mine is distant about 500 meters from the caño Corosimo, which is deep enough for vessels of from 2,000 to 3,000 tons burden. The veins have been laid open for a distance of more than 6 miles, and can be worked easily; there are besides about 200,000 tons of surface ore. As the mine is only 2,000 miles from Baltimore or New York, it offers more advantages for transport than the mines of Bilboa in Spain, or those of Sweden, which are from 4,000 to 5,000 miles distant from said ports. In addition it must be observed that the Imataca iron is only equaled by the very best Swedish produce.

501. **BOG-IRON ORE.** Caracas.

502. **IRON ORE** (iron pyrites). Exhib. the Government of the State of Bermudez.

503. **IRON ORE** (Oligiste), from Manoa, Territory of the Orinoco. Exhib. by the Governor of the Delta.

GROUP 51—COPPER.—CLASS 340. COPPER ORES.

504. **COPPER-ORE** (mostly carbonate), from El Carrizal. Exhib. J. A. Mosquera.

505. **GREEN AND BLUE COPPER CARBONATE,** from the mines of Guaicaipuro, State of Miranda.

506. **Rafael Ricart.** Sulphuret of copper with silver and gold. Barquisimeto.

507. " Copper-ore, containing some silver and gold. Barquisimeto.

508. **Rafael Ricart.** Copper ore, with some antimony, gold, and traces of silver. Barquisimeto.

509. **COPPER ORE** (pyrites and carbonate) and regulus. Exhib. by "The Quebrada Railway, Land & Copper Company, Limited," in Aroa (Yaracuy).

The Aroa mines are located in the section Yaracuy of the State Lara, on the banks of the river Aroa, which flows into the Caribbean Sea. Their distance from the port of Tucacas is about 89 miles, and their height over sea-level 1165 feet. They were discovered 1605 by one Alonso de Oviedo; but during the whole epoch of Spanish rule the produce was very insignificant. In our century they became, by inheritance, the property of the Liberator Simon Bolivar, and were afterwards sold by his family to an Englishman called Robert Dent. To-day they belong to "The Quebrada Railway, Land & Copper Company, Limited," in London, whose capital is formed by 306,447 shares of £3 each. The ore is found in a kind of slaty limestone and is principally chalcopyrite, called *ye low ore* by the miners, containing 9 to 12 per cent. of metallic copper. This ore undergoes several transformations, being changed into red oxide (*ruby ore*) and carbonate of copper (*malaquite and azurite*). Nearly all the output is shipped to Swansea in England; only the poor carbonate is reduced first to regulus containing from 25 to 30 per cent. of copper. From 1878 to 1891 there were shipped 329,218 tons of ore (averaging 11.25 per cent. of copper) and 53,053 tons of regulus (averaging 27.75 per cent.). These quantities represent, therefore, 51,759 tons of metal, which, at the average price of £54 per ton, make a total of £2,794,986, or nearly $14,000,000 Amer. gold. The copper from Venezuela goes in Swansea under the name of "Quebrada" ore and holds in that market the second place after Chile.

GROUP 67—HISTORY AND LITERATURE OF MINING.—CLASS 410. MAPS.

510. **MAP OF VENEZUELA**, showing the location of the most important mines hitherto known.

511. **MAP OF THE MINING TERRITORY IN THE DISTRICT OF GUAICAIPUCO**, State of Miranda.

512. **MAP OF THE COAL MINES OF NARICUAL**, Barcelona.

(A great many maps and drawings referring to the mines in Venezuela, are to be found in the *Boletin de Riqueza Pública*, which will be mentioned hereafter among the publications of the Government. (Group 150, Class 863.)

DEPARTMENT G.

TRANSPORTATION.

GROUP 80—RAILROADS.

513. **RELIEF PLAN OF RAILROAD FROM LA GUAIRA TO CARACAS.** Executed under the direction of Dr. I. Muñoz Tébar, Minister of Public Works, and exhibited by the Government of Venezuela. Although it is only 5 miles (as the crow flies) from La Guaira to Caracas, communication between the two places presents considerable difficulties on account of the great difference in height over sea-level (2,984 feet) and the irregular configuration of the coast-chain which separates the capital from its sea-port. During all the time of Spanish rule there was only a mule track over the mountains; and about 50 years ago a cart-road was built, which both are still in use. The great progress of com-

mercial movement made it, however, necessary to provide for better means of transportation, and led to the construction of a railroad, which was carried out by an English company and opened to traffic in 1883 after two years of work. This line is $22\frac{3}{4}$ miles long; the shortest radius of the curves is 140 feet and the maximum gradient 3.75 per cent. The gauge is 3 feet, the rails weighing 50 pounds a yard. The ties are made of the very best heart-wood from the country, measuring 6 feet by 6 inches by 8 inches, and are placed at two feet distance from each other. The highest point of the line is at its entrance into the valley of Caracas (3120 feet). There are five bridges (the longest measuring 406 feet) and 8 tunnels (the longest of 314 feet in length, having the following section: radius 6 feet 6 inches, base 11 feet, width in center 13 feet, height 13 feet 6 inches. In Caracas as well as in La Guaira there are stations with spacious buildings for passengers and freight traffic, besides workshops and other structures for the rolling-stock, which (1892) consisted of 16 locomotives, 16 passenger-cars, and 97 freight-cars. Every day 22 trains are run, *viz.*, 4 passenger-trains, 16 freight-trains, and 2 mixed trains; but on Sundays there are only passenger-trains. During the first half-year of 1891 the receipts were as follows: Passengers (44,825), Bol. 371,971.75; baggage, Bol. 18,140.24; down-freight (10,000 tons), Bol.201,724.26; up-freight (45,613 tons). Bol. 1,467,822.53; storage and sundries, Bol. 14,510.87; total, Bol. 2,075,211,15.

514-515. "GROSSE VENEZUELA EISENBAHN-GESELLSCHAFT." A series of photographic views of the most interesting points. This line is being constructed by a German company, under the direction of the "Norddeutsche Bank" in Berlin. When concluded it will connect Caracas with Valencia, running through the valleys of Aragua, one of the most important centers of agriculture in the country. As yet only 25 kiloms. are open to traffic; but soon the work in the extremely difficult part, between kilom. 30 and 50, will be terminated, and within one year trains will run as far as La Victoria, a distance of 94 kilom. from Caracas. The gauge of the line is 1.07 meters, the shortest radius of curves 90 meters, the maximum gradient 2 per cent. There are 95 tunnels of a total length of 4,079 meters (the longest 267 meters), 46 viaducts, and 29 bridges. The station at Caracas is 911.64 meters above sea-level; at a distance of 30 kiloms. the highest point is reached (Stat. El Corozal, 1,226.93 meters); thence to Las Tejerias (38 kiloms.) there is a descent of 726 meters, and finally follows a nearly horizontal section until La Victoria (537.32 meters) is reached.

CLASS 523. SADDLERY.

516. J. Boccardo & Co., Caracas. Saddles, called *sillas vaqueras*, richly embroidered.

517. RAW COWHIDE CORDS, generally used by cartmen for fastening the cargo on the carts.

518-522. STRAPS, HALTERS, AND CORDAGE, made of horse-hair.

DEPARTMENT II.

MANUFACTURES.

GROUP 87—CHEMICAL AND PHARMACEUTICAL PRODUCTS.—CLASS 547. DRUGS.

523. ANGELON (*Angelonia salicariæfolia*). A powerful sudoritic. The plant grows abundantly in moist places nearly everywhere.

524. BEJUCO MORENO (*Serjania diversifolia*). Anti-syphilitic.

525. PALO AMARGO (botanical origin not known). The bark is said to be a good tonic and febrifuge.

526. GUACO. Stems and leaves of a climbing-plant (*Mikania gonoclada*), which have the reputation of being an excellent blood-purifier and a remedy against snake-poison.

527. GUACHAMACÁN (*Malouetia nitida*, fam. of *Apocynaceæ*). The milky sap of the wood contains a poisonous substance of highly narcotic properties. The plant grows abundantly on the banks of Middle Orinoco and Apure. Exhib. Nat. Mus , Caracas.

528. PALO MATIAS (*Croton Malambo*). The bark is aromatic and used as a stimulant. Exhib. Nat. Mus., Caracas.

529. PICA MALVA. A plant of the composite family, and belonging probably to the genus *Calea*. All its parts are of an intensely bitter taste; the leaves macerated in water, rum, or wine are recommended as an excellent stomachic, and it is said that they give good results also in the treatment of scrofula and paludic fever. Exhib. Dr. B. Bermudez, Carúpano.

530. SANTA MARIA (*Aristolochia* spec.). Used as a tonic.

531. ARRAYAN-ROOT. The very astringent root of a myrtaceous plant, a decoction of which is recommended in the treatment of dysentery. Exhib. Nat. Mus., Caracas.

532. RAIZ DE MATO (*Aristolochia barbata*). An excellent tonic which deserves the attention of physicians.

533. POLYPODE. The rhizome of *Polypodium auratum*, used in medicine as a blood-purifier and anti-venereal remedy.

534. SARSAPARILLA. Caracas sarsaparilla comes from a species of *Smilax*, which, botanically, is not yet perfectly known, as plants with male flowers hitherto have not been found. It is not exported, but only used by the druggists of the country, who pay the collectors $16 to $24 for the quintal of dry root. The import of foreign sarsaparilla is prohibited by the custom laws.

535. SALOMON BARK (*Hedyosmum Bourgoini*). A small tree belonging to the family of chloranthaceæ, growing in the higher parts of the mountains of Mérida). It is aromatic, of a somewhat bitter and pungent taste, and used for making bitters.

536. CUSPA-BARK. This is the true Angostura Bark of druggists, derived from *Galipea* (Cusparia) *officinalis*. It is sometimes called "quina amarilla," *i. e.*, yellow quinquina, and used as an excellent tonic and febrifuge. Exhib. Nat. Mus., Caracas.

537. CINCHONA-BARK FROM TOCUYO (*Cinchona Tucujensis*). Though not containing much quinine, it is exported chiefly from Puerto Cabello.

538. CINCHONA-BARK, from *Cinchona cordifolia*, var. *rotundifolia*. It is exported from La Guaira, whilst from Puerto Cabello and Maracaibo *C. Tucujensis* is shipped. The fever barks of Venezuela are poor in alcaloids, and cannot be used advantageously for their extraction; but they are mostly employed for making dentifrice. A considerable quantity goes to New York.

539. SIMARUBA. The somewhat bitter and tonic inner bark of *Simaruba officinalis*, a tree which is rather common in Guayana.

540. CUPÍS. The pungent and very aromatic bark of *Drimys granatensis*, used especially in veterinary medicine. The tree grows on the mountains in the western part of the Republic.

541. TORCO BARK. Is somewhat aromatic, and appears to come from some tree of the laurel family. It is occasionally used in medicine as an aromatic and stimulating remedy.

542. ALCORNOQUE BARK (*Bowdichia virgilioides*). Astringent, and recommended by some as giving good results in treating the initial symptoms of consumption.

543. CEREIPO (*Myrospermum frutescens*). Both the bark and fruit of this tree contain an aromatic resin, which has anti-rheumatic properties.

544. COLA-NUTS. The seeds of *Cola acuminata*, a tree introduced into the country, but now perfectly naturalized in various parts. The seeds have lately been talked of a great deal on account of the large percentage of caffein they contain.

545. COCA. (Leaves and pharmaceutical preparations.) Samples of leaves of a species of *Erythroxylum*, believed to be the true *E. coca* of botanists. They were analyzed in the pharmaceutical laboratory of E. M. Genevoix & Co., in Paris, and yielded 1.17 gramme of cocaine per kilogr. of leaves. The plant appears to grow rather abundantly in the country between Cumaná and Maturia (eastern part of Venezuela), and is known to the inhabitants under the name of *hayo*, which, however, is common to all the species of *Erythroxylum*. Dr. B. Bermudez, of Carúpano, discovered the plant in 1886, and uses the leaves for making two preparations: *Coca Wine* and *Coca Tincture*, both of which were awarded a gold medal in the Paris Exposition, 1889. The first is sold at 60 cents a bottle, the second at 40 cents an ounce. Exhib. Dr. B. Bermudez, Carúpano.

546. ALGALIA (Musk Seed). The seeds of *Abelmoschus moschatus*, a strong perennial of the mallow family, which is cultivated in certain parts, for instance, in the valley of the River Tuy. The whole plant smells of musk; the seeds are used for scenting hair-powder and pomatum.

547. OJO DE ZAMURO (*Mucuna pruriens*). Said to be an efficient remedy for curing hemorrhoids, as well as asthmatic affections. R. Ricart.

548. SABADILLA. The seeds of *Schoenocaulon officinale*. They contain a poisonous alcaloid, called veratrine, used especially in veterinary medicine. For many years Venezuela was the only country whence sabadilla was exported, after the Mexican article had disappeared in commerce. The quantity exported is variable, but ranges from 3,000 to 5,000 quintals annually. Lately, it appears, that in Chile they make attempts to cultivate the plant for commercial purposes.

549. MUSTARD (*Brassica nigra*). Exhib. I. Chapman, Coro.

550. PUCHERÍ (*Ocotea Pichurim*), from Carúpano. Somewhat bitter and aromatic.

551. TAMARINDS and PULP OF TAMARINDS. The fruits of *Tamarindus occidentalis* contain a slightly acid pulp, which is used for preparing refreshing beverages.

552. COPAIBA (*Copaifera officinalis*). Exported principally from Ciudad Bolivar and Maracaibo, the latter one being considered of superior quality.

553. CARICARITO (from a burseraceous tree, probably a species of *Hedwigia*). Used for making unguents. I. Chapman, Coro.

554. TACAMAHACA (*Protium heptaphyllum*).

555. CARAÑA (*Protium Carana*). Known in medicine as species of elemi, and used for making unguents.

556. ALOES (*Aloe barbadensis*). Exhib. I. Chapman, Coro. Used very much in medicine. The plant grows very abundantly in the States of Falcon and Barquisimeto, being known under the name of *Zábila*.

557. Dr. M. M. Ponte, Caracas; elixir tropical.
558. " " fever-pills.
559. Braun & Co., Caracas; Oberto's pills.
560. " " surgical water.
561. " " indispensable remedy.
562. Felipe Ortega, Valencia; prodigious elixir.
563. G. Sanchez, Maracaibo; extract of sarsaparilla.
564. Blanco Zerpa, Cumaná; balm of Manzanares.
565. Victor Manuel Anselmi, Yaracuy; "Salvavida" (life-preserver).
566. Pedro P. Lucero, Barquisimeto; depurating pills.
567. J. J. Ponce; depurating syrup.
568. " sulphur-soap.
569. Isaac Chapman, Coro; depurating anti-syphilitic syrup.
570. " " anti-alcoholic potion.
571. " " dentifric elixir.
572. " " anti-rheumatic tincture.
573. " " vermifuge pastilles.
574. Rómulo Farias, Coro; regenerating syrup.
575. J. M. Escobar, Barquisimeto; depurating syrup.
576. J. A. Olivares, Barquisimeto; regenerating drops.
577. " " sympathetic balm.
578. " " cariformina.
579. Dr. Bernardo Bermudez, Carúpano; coca-wine.
580. " " coca-tincture.
581. Malvina Alguilera de Tinoco; Parian balm.
582. Victor Ramon Feo, Caracas; Venezuelan panacea.
583. " " efficient ointment.
584. " " universal injection.
585. " " powerful drops.

CLASS 550. ESSENTIAL OILS, TOILET SOAPS, PERFUMERY AND COSMETICS.

586. SASSAFRAS OIL.

587. F. Serrano, Cumaná; soap.

588. R. Soucy & Co., Caracas; Portuguese water.
589. " " quinine water.
590. " " Cologne water.
591. " " extract Marie Antoinette.
592. " " extract violets of Parma.
593. " " triple concentrated heliotrope extract.
594. " " oil for preserving the hair.
595. José de la Paz Guevara, Caracas; hair-preserver.
596. I. Chapman, Coro; cascarilla (finely ground egg-shell).

GROUP 89—STATIONERY.—CLASS 561. BLANK BOOKS AND BOOKBINDING.

597-598. J. M. Herrera Irigoyen & Co. ("El Cojo"), Caracas: Blank books.
599-602. " " Samples of bookbinding in different styles.

GROUP 101—FABRICS OF VEGETABLE FIBERS.

603. **COCUIZA FABRIC** for coffee bags.

GROUP 102—FABRICS OF COTTON, ETC.

604-607. **HAMMOCKS** of cotton cloth, with rich trimmings, made in the Island of Margarita.

608. **"CHINCHORROS,"** from Barquisimeto.

609. " of *dispopo* fibre (a kind of *Agave*), from Barquisimeto.

610-613. **SAMPLES OF COTTON CLOTH** from Quibor (Barquisimeto).

614. Franc. de S. Perez & Co. Common cotton cloth. Factory in Valencia.

GROUP 103—WOVEN GOODS OF WOOL.

615-616. **BLANKETS FROM QUIBOR.** Barquisimeto.

GROUP 104—CLOTHING.—CLASS 654. HATS.

617-620. **HATS MADE OF VEGETABLE MATTER.** The leaves of some arborescent grasses and palms, after being torn into narrow strips, bleached or dyed, are much used for making the ordinary hats worn by the country people. Such are the "sombreros de cogollo," made of the younger leaves of *Arundo saccharoides*, whilst those from Margarita are made of palm leaves, and the so-called "sombreros de Maracaibo," of the leaves of certain species of *Carludovica*. There is in the Exhibit a sample of bleached "cogollo," such as is used for making the hats.

CLASS 656. BOOTS AND SHOES.

621. **SHOES AND BOOTS** manufactured and exhibited by J. Boccardo & Co., Caracas: Eight pairs of shoes and boots for ladies; ten pairs of shoes and boots for men; sandals.

622. **SHOES.** Exhib. Francisco Rodriguez Cabrera, Caracas.

623. **SANDALS.** Exhib. H. H. Romero Garcia, Valencia.

624. **SANDALS** from Quibor (Barquisimeto).

CLASS 658. SHIRTS.

625. M. F. Perez, Caracas, shirts.

626. Carlos Casals (*Los Españoles*), Valencia: shirts.

GROUP 108—TRAVELING EQUIPMENTS.—CLASS 681. CANES.

627. **POLISHED AND RUSTIC CANES** made of different kinds of wood.

GROUP 111—LEATHER.—CLASS 697. TANNED LEATHER.

628-657. **TANNED LEATHERS,** exhibited by J. Boccardo & Co., Caracas. Thirty varieties: Black sole leather for harness; white and red for shoes and sandals; calf, colored and uncolored; goat, imitating morocco black; smooth, chagreen, dead, colored; sheep, imitating morocco, chagreen, dead, colored, cordovan, with the wool, imitating parchment, etc.

658. **SOLE-LEATHER** (black and red). Exhib. H. H. Romero Garcia, Valencia.

659. **SOLE-LEATHER.** Exhib. Marcano successors, Carúpano.

DEPARTMENT K.

FINE ARTS.

GROUP 140. PAINTINGS IN OIL.

660. Arturo Michelena. *The Death of Penthesilea*, or, *The Combat of the Amazons.* The artist represents the moment in which one of the amazons has seized the body of their queen, slain in the fight, in order to bring it away from the field of battle. (Obtained a prize at the *Salon* in Paris.)

661. Arturo Michelena. *Portrait of the Liberator Simon Bolivar,* on horseback. (From the principal hall of the Legislative Palace of the State of Carabobo in Valencia.)

662. Arturo Michelena. *Charity.* A wealthy lady accompanied by her little daughter brings some alms to a poor sick woman, whose daughter plays with an old basket.

663. Arturo Michelena. *The Broken Lance.* A *picador*, whose lance got broken, is closely pursued by the infuriated bull which has gored already the horse, whilst the man, assisted by his companions, tries to climb over the enclosure of the arena.

664. Arturo Michelena. *The Hailstorm.* A mother with two children and an old man, stare frightened at the window shattered by the hailstones, whilst a cat looks terrified at the scene from under a cupboard in a corner.

665. Arturo Michelena. *Charlotte Corday going to the Scaffold,* accompanied by two guards, whilst the jailer quietly lights his pipe. On the right stands the painter who made her portrait.

666. Arturo Michelena. *Portrait of Gen. Joaquin Crespo,* in campaign, surrounded by his officers and aide-de-camps.

667. Arturo Michelena. *Venezuela Doing Homage to Christopher Columbus.* An allegorical painting; round the pedestal of the great Discoverer's statue are scattered beautiful flowers, amongst them the "Flor de Mayo" (*Cattleya Mossiæ*), one of the most splendid orchids of the rich Venezuelan flora.

668. Arturo Michelena. *An Antiquarian in His Cabinet.* Portrait of Dr. Arístides Rojas, a distinguished historian and man of letters in Caracas.

669. Cristobal Rojas. *The Purgatory.* An angel descending through the glare of the flames announces the pardon of God to a group of figures, in which stands out most prominently that of a tall man with the combined expression of despair and penitence on his face. (From the church of "La Divina Pastora" in Caracas.)

670. Cristobal Rojas. *A French Tavern.* Several men and a girl of the laboring class are sitting at a table and listen to the waiting-woman of the place.

671. Cristobal Rojas. *The First and Last Communion.* A priest brings the sacrament to a dying girl sitting in the lap of her mother.

672. Cristobal Rojas. *A Girl Reading.* A girl sitting at a window is reading a book.

673. Cristobal Rojas. *An Old Beggar.*

674. Cristobal Rojas. *An Eviction.* A poor widow with two children, who has not been able to pay her rent, is driven out by the sheriff from the miserable garret she occupies.

675. Christobal Rojas. *A Christening.*

676. A. Herrera Toro. *Charity.* In a room where everything bespeaks poverty a mother is dying, a priest gives her the last blessing; whilst Charity, personified as a fair lady sitting at the bedside, opens her arms, tendering protection to the abandoned orphans.

677. A. Herrera Toro. *A Drop of Water.* A little child, holding under her right arm an antique water-vessel, is seated on the large leaf of an aroid.

678. A. Herrera Toro. *In the Sun.* Two children are standing in the sun to dry themselves after their bath.

679. Emilio Mauri. *Marguerite Coming from Church.*

680. " *Portrait of a Lady.*

681. I. Inciarte. *Buffaloes grazing in the Roman Pontines.*

GROUP 140—CRAYONS AND OTHER DRAWINGS.

682. A. Herrera Toro. *Two Children Sitting in a Basket.*

683. " Copy of the artist's painting *Charity.* (See No. 676.)

684-685. M. M. Ravelo. *Pell-mell.* Two drawings done with pen and ink (Property of Mr. F. Vollmer, Hamburg.)

686. *Portraits of General Joaquin Crespo,* President of the United States of Venezuela.

DEPARTMENT L.

Liberal Arts.

GROUP 147.—CLASS 829.

687. WATER-FILTER ("tinajero"), used all over the country in Venezuela. The water is poured into the porous drip-stone, from which it falls by drops into a large earthen vessel called *bernegal.* As this is not glazed and therefore very porous, evaporation takes place and keeps the water quite cool, even on very hot days. Generally a tin scoop is used for the purpose of taking it out and filling the likewise porous water-bottles (*pimpinas, múcuras*); but in some cases the ladle is made of a more or

less elaborately carved cocos-nut shell, mounted in silver on a wooden handle.

688. FILTERING-STONE, from Cumaná.

GROUP 150—LITERATURE AND BOOKS.—CLASS 854.

Books printed and bound in the establishment of J. M. Herrera, Irigoyen & Co. ("El Cojo"), Caracas, and exhibited by the same, the most important being the following:

689. Julio Calcaño, El Parnaso Venezolano.
690. Anibal Dominici, Comentario del Código de Comercio Venezolano.
691. Tomas Michelena, Resumen de la vida militar y politica del General J. A. Paez.
692. M. V. Toledo, La Exposición Colombina de 1893.
693. Vicente Mestre, Cuestionario del Derecho de la Guerra.
694. " Dictados del Derecho de la Guerra.
695. El Cojo Ilustrado.
696. SAMPLE-BOOK OF STYLES OF PRINTING.
697. SEVERAL MINOR PUBLICATIONS, PAMPHLETS, ETC.
698. E. Lopez Rivas, "Imprenta Americana," Maracaibo; Sample-books, catalogues, and several publications made by the establishment, as for instance, *El Zulia Ilustrado, Annuario estadistico de la Sección Zulia, Obras poéticas de Ildefonso Vazquez*, pamphlets, etc.
699. Tosta Garcia, Leyendas de la Conquista.
700. Pedro Monasterios, Arbol sinóptico de las Composiciones literarias.

CLASS 863. GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS.

701. Memoria de la Alta Corte Federal, 1892.
702. Memoria de Correos y Telégrafos, 1892.
703. Dictámenes del Consejo Federal, 1892.
704. Tercer Censo de la República, 4 tomos and "Resumen."
705. Boletin de la Riqueza Pública. 3 vols.
706. Titulos de Venezuela en sus Límites de Colombia. 3 vols.
707. R. F. Seijas, Límites con la Guayana Inglesa.
708. Anuario Estadístico de los Est. Unidos de Venezuela. 1891.
709. Arist. Rojas, Orígenes Venezolanos.
710. " Miranda en la Revolucion francesa.
711. " Objetos Históricos de Venezuela en la Exposición de Chicago.
712. Recopilación de Leyes de Venezuela. 15 vols.

CLASS 864. MAPS.

713. MAP OF VENEZUELA, showing the extension of agriculture.
714. " " showing railroads and other means of communication.
715. " " showing location of mines.
716. " CUMANÁ.
717. MAP OF CITY OF CARACAS (Gen. Vicente Mestre).

CLASS 871. PHOTOGRAPHS.

718. **A SERIES OF 80 PHOTOGRAPHS,** mostly by F. Lessmann (Caracas), showing views from the neighborhood of Caracas.

719. **ANOTHER SERIES OF PHOTOGRAPHS,** showing views on the Guanta-Barcelona Railroad. (Taken by , Barcelona.

CLASS 928.

720. **GUITARS.** These small 4 stringed guitars are the favorite instruments all over the country for the accompaniment of dancing-music and song.

DEPARTMENT M.

ETHNOGRAPHY.

GROUP 160. TOOLS AND IMPLEMENTS OF THE ABORIGINAL RACES.

721-732. **TOOLS, ARMS, ETC.,** of the Guagiro Indians, who inhabit the peninsula Guagiro, west of Maracaibo: bridle made of horse-hair, woman's hat, spindles, reel, poporo (used by those who chew *hayo* or coca-leaves), flute, bow and arrows, sandals, bags, woven fabrics of different colors.

733. **INDIAN HUT** (Tribe of Warraus), from the Delta of the Orinoco. Exhib. the Governor of the Territory).

734-737. **TOOLS AND ARMS OF THE INDIANS** inhabiting the Delta of the Orinoco: lance, arrows, flutes, spinning implement, etc.

(Numbers 721 to 737 are exhibited in the Anthropological Building.)

738. **EARTHENWARE** made by the Indians of Manicuare.

739. **TAPARAS.** The emptied shells of the calabash fruit (*Crescentia cujete*), for carrying water.

740. **TAPARITAS.** Small drinking-bowls made of the shell either of some cucurbitaceous fruits, or of those of *Crescentia cucurbitina*, a congener of the calabash tree. They are only used by the poorest country people.

741. **RATTLES.** They are called *maracas* in the country and made of the emptied shell of the calabash fruit, fixed on a short handle, and containing some small pieces of stone or grains of Indian corn. When rhythmically shaken a rattling noise is thus produced, which helps to accompany any other kind of popular music or song.

742. **YESCA DE HORMIGAS,** *i. e.*, ants' tinder. This substance, used as tinder by the inhabitants of the Upper Orinoco, consists of the soft hairs of certain melastomaceous plants, which are collected by a species of ant (*Polyrhachis spinicollis*) for its nest.

743. **VERADAS.** The long and slender axis of the inflorescence which springs from the top of the "caña amarga" or *Arundo saccharoides*. Every inflorescence consists of hundreds of tiny branches and branchlets, bearing thousands of minute flowers (nearly all sterile), the whole forming a huge conical plume of extreme subtleness, quivering gracefully with the slightest breath of air. The "veradas" are perfectly straight and very light, although comparatively strong and solid; therefore they are used by the Indians as shafts for their arrows, and by the civilized people as rocket sticks, which are always much in demand.

DEPARTMENT OF HISTORICAL OBJECTS.

744. **COAT-OF-ARMS OF VENEZUELA,** wood-carving by Malausena in Caracas.

745. **TWO GONFALONS** of the City of Caracas, such as were used in the last century. They are made of red damask and show in rich embroidery the arms of Spain and of the city. They belong to the National Museum, and are exhibited by order of the Government of Venezuela.

746. **STANDARD OF PIZARRO.** Gonfalon carried by the Spaniards, under Francisco Pizarro, when they made their triumphal entry into Cuzco, the old capital of the empire of the Incas, November 16, 1533. It was deposited in the Temple of the Sun, which had been converted into a Christian cathedral and there it remained until 1824, when it was presented by the city authorities to General Sucre, after the victory of Ayeucho. Sucre sent the banner to the Liberator Simon Bolivar, as one of the most interesting trophies, and Bolivar gave it afterwards to his native city Caracas, where this precious relic is preserved in the large meeting-hall of the Municipal Council. The original stuff was red damask, of which, however, only scanty fragments remain, so that it was necessary to sew the embroidered arabesques on another stuff. On one side were worked the arms of Charles V., and on the other was painted the Apostle James in the attitude of a warrior mounted on a white horse. When the banner was inclosed into the frame which contains it now, this figure was carefully cut out, and placed on the other visible side. Further information on this interesting relic may be found in an article written by Dr. Arístides Rojas, of Caracas, and published in a pamphlet, "Historical Objects from Venezuela in the Exposition of Chicago." (See annex to this Catalogue.)

747. **MEDALLION OF WASHINGTON.** This precious relic shows on its face a miniature portrait of Washington, beautifully done by Stewart after Field's great painting, whilst the rear is of deep blue enamel, inclosing a small glass-covered oval with some hair of the North American Cincinnatus. This oval is surrounded by a gold plate, on which the following inscription is engraved: *Auctoris Libertatis Americanæ in Septentrione hanc Imaginem dat Filius ejus adoptatus illi qui gloriam similem in Austro adeptus est* (This likeness of the author of liberty in North America is given by his adopted son to the one who achieved a similar glory in South America). The medallion was sent to Bolivar by George Washington P. Custis, through the intervention of General Lafayette, in 1825. After Bolivar's death it was preserved by his heirs, until one of his nephews presented it to General Guzman Blanco, some time President of Venezuela, who ordered it to be placed in the National Museum in Caracas. For further details see an article written by Dr. Arístides Rojos, and published in "Historical Objects from Venezuela in the Chicago Exposition." (See annex to this Catalogue.)

748. **EL SOL DEL PERU.** A jewel in the shape of a sun, thickly set with diamonds, which was presented to the Liberator Simon Bolivar in 1825 by the grateful Peruvians, after his having accomplished the emancipation of their country from Spanish rule. It belongs actually to the National Museum at Caracas, and is exhibited by order of the Government of Venezuela.

749. **SWORD** presented to Simon Bolivar in Lima by Perú, in 1825, when the final defeat of the Spanish forces had secured the liberty and independence of the country. The blade is of the finest steel and richly ornamented with arabesques and damask-work inclosing on one side the inscriptions: *Simon Bolivar—Union y Libertad—Año de* 1825, and on the other, *Libertador de Colombia y del Perú—Chungapoma me fecit en Lima.* The scabbard is sheathed in gold and likewise covered by rich ornaments, and the golden hilt is set with quite a profusion of diamonds. Besides being a relic of great historical interest, it is a splendid specimen of workmanship, and this the much the more so as the artificer was a man of Indian origin, to judge from his queer name. The sword was kept for many years by Bolivar's descendants living in Caracas, until, in 1888, the Government of Venezuela bought it, paying them about $24,000 for it, for the purpose of placing it in the Bolivar Hall of the National Museum. A full description may be found in an article written by Dr. Arístides Rojas, and published in "Historical Objects from Venezuela in the Chicago Exposition" (Caracas, 1893), a translation of which is annexed to this catalogue.

750. **GOLD-EMBROIDERED SADDLE-CLOTH** presented 1825 in Lima to the Liberator Simon Bolivar. It was bought afterwards from Bolivar's heirs by the Municipal Council of Caracas and offered to Gen. Guzman Blanco, who ordered it to be placed into the National Museum of said city.

751. **AUTOGRAPH SIGNATURE** of the Liberator Simon Bolivar, on the commission of Marcos Otero, as second lieutenant of the militia, 1827.

752. **SIX OFFICIAL DOCUMENTS,** carefully written on large vellum paper, referring to the translation of the remains of Gen. J. A. Paez from the City of New York to the capital of Venezuela. Exhib. Nat. Museum, Caracas.

APPENDIX.

753. **COFFEE** (washed, trillado, pea-berry, in parchment). Exhib. by Van Dissel & Co., Maracaibo.

APPENDIX.

Historical Objects of Venezuela

AT THE

WORLD'S COLUMBIAN EXPOSITION.

ESSAYS

BY

ARISTIDES ROJAS.

(Translated from the Spanish.)

Historical Objects of Venezuela.

A SANGUINARY and destructive civil war had desolated all parts of Venezuela during the first eight months of the year 1892, and when at length towards the end of the year the Government which issued from the struggle was finally established in Carácas, its financial resources were curtailed to the utmost. Although the establishment of a peace beneath which the commerce and industry of the country were to have a fresh lease of life and vigor, gave encouragement to all, the triumphant Revolution could pay but little attention to preparations for a festival in which all the civilized nations of the world were fraternally to participate, and in which they were exerting all the means in their power to take an honorable place. Influenced, however, by a feeling of American solidarity, the Venezuelan Government designated two commissioners, so that the country might not remain entirely unrepresented in the great tournament of modern civilization which was to take place at Chicago. This first step, however, although only of a private character, and simply intended to show friendly feeling restricted by the necessities of the moment, was inspired by conformity with the American spirit of ideal progress and it led the Executive of the Nation to give more serious attention to the Columbian Exhibition in spite of the penury of the Treasury and the ruin and desolation which had spread over hundreds of cities. Fully alive to the difficulties caused by the sad condition in which the civil war had left the country, the promoters of the Exhibition only requested that the name of Venezuela should not be missing in the roll-call of nations: all that was wanted was that on the site to be chosen the tricolor flag should be hoisted—the emblem of our glories at the time of the great war, of our trade, industry, and agricultural wealth, of our intellectual and social development, and generally of this whole period of our history.

Such was the situation in the first days of 1893. The Government had to vanquish the obstacles which confronted it, to reëstablish peace, inspire confidence, wipe out painful memories, and acquire the good will of its fellow-citizens. As a means to that end, and obeying the noble inspirations of American fraternity, it decided on taking an effective part in the celebration of the Fourth Centenary of Columbus. There is an occult force which in nations, like individuals, operates at a given moment, producing will-power and patriotic enthusiasm, and giving a direction to the great ideas which guide generations in the conquests of the future.

We were entrusted by the Venezuelan Government with the Presidency of the Commission which was to exhibit to the world our national wealth, our arts, and industries; we were saddened by the panorama of ruins, misery, and solitude which surrounded us, but we did not hesitate to accept the charge: a sense of duty sustained us, and in such momentous, rarely occurring circumstances, duty is like the kindly rays which light up the desolated fields and vivify the seed entrusted to the earth by the hand of labor.

We have met and conquered many and varied obstacles and shall be able to produce in the great Columbian contest numerous samples of our territorial wealth, of the various products of our fertile zone, of our industries, of our progress. To the tokens of our natural and industrial wealth we have joined artistic treasures, the works of celebrated painters who have won for themselves prizes of honor beyond the Atlantic and a place amongst the masters of the art of Apelles. We could not withhold at least some contributions of Venezuelan genius from that tourney of universal progress which is but a tribute to the genius of America and of its immortal Discoverer. When the great Republic, the daughter of Washington, strong in her advanced civilization, opens her ports to receive the ships and wealth of all nations, the monuments of science and art since the origin of the human race, we cannot refrain from appearing before that Areopagus where the august shades of Washington, Franklin, and Bolívar will be present with that of the great Discoverer, of the masters of art and the apostles of science since the earliest ages.

It was the wish of the Government that some of the historical souvenirs lovingly guarded in our museums, and which up to the

present have never left our country, should figure in the great tourney, and arrangements have been made to exhibit them at Chicago in the Venezuelan section. Two relics of the period of the conquest and two others of the epoch of our independence have been selected for the purpose. The two first are the coat-of-arms of Charles V., which in 1527 was on the door of the Municipal Building of New Cadiz, in the island of Cubagua, and the war flag with which the conquistador, Francisco Pizarro, entered the city of Cuzco in 1533. The modern relics are the sword of Bolívar, presented to him by the city of Lima in 1825, and a medallion of Washington, a valuable gift which the Liberator received from the family of Washington, in 1826, through the intermediary of General Lafayette.

The coat-of-arms of Charles V. marks our geographical filiation in the days when the drama of Castilian conquest opened on the eastern coasts of Venezuela. Our existence dates from the beginning of the sixteenth century, when Columbus had ceased to be, and filibusters of all nationalities took possession of the oyster beds of Cubagua. This first Spanish settlement, the cradle of that city of New Cadiz with which so many sad memories are connected, was prior in date to any of the cities of the continental mainland.[1] This geographical point is the first in the historical hierarchy of the New World.

The standard of Pizarro is a lasting record of the venturesome conquest of the Andes by the lion-hearted men of Castile. At the beginning of the sixteenth century these mountains became the domain of the Castilian: in 1819 they returned to the hands of the American; now conquerors and liberators fraternally join to celebrate common glories before the august shade of Columbus. The standard of Pizarro is the most brilliant jewel of the Castilian conquest, when our ancestors founded a civilization which lasted for three centuries. Conquerors or conquered, they were always high-minded, and on their departure left us a rich legacy: their language, their religion, and their family virtues.

Amongst the valuable historical souvenirs of the Exhibition

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[1] As it was feared that the coat-of-arms of Charles V. might get damaged, we have only forwarded a fac-simile to Chicago.

the sword of Bolívar does not represent war, but peace—the olive-branch — that concord which the great soldier so strenuously recommended at the hour of his death.

Finally, the medallion of Washington and the tokens from Mount Vernon constitute a tie which binds together two American nations. Bolivar, the victorious General, bore the effigy of Washington on his heart. The two Washingtons are joined in history, and unite to celebrate Columbus in the prairie by the shores of the North American lakes.

These essays which accompany the historical souvenirs sent by the Venezuelan Government to the Exhibition of Chicago do not constitute a book, not even a homage to the memory of the Discoverer.—They are simply quiet echoes, salutations from Venezuela in the great festival of modern times. They are the outcome of the love of country—pure, simple, and spontaneous — nothing more.

ARISTIDES ROJAS.

CARÁCAS, MAY 1, 1893.

THE FIRST COLONY IN VENEZUELAN WATERS.

1498–1550.

I.

Columbus in the Gulf of Paria—Discovery of Pearls—Courtesy of the Caciques of Paria—The Oyster-Beds of Cubagua—The Guayquery Indians—The First Castilian Dish on the Shores of the Continent—Description of Cubagua—The Early Days of New Cadiz—First Colony—Prosperity and Ruin of Cubagua.

We read in Castilian chronicles that when from the western shores of the Gulf of Paria the natives first descried in 1498 the caravels of Columbus, the lithe and graceful forms of the Indian maidens appeared before the discoverers with chaplets of pearls twined around their arms and necks. Columbus inquired from the first Indians who came on board where the pearls were to be found, and they informed him they came from an island situated to the north of Paria, where there were extensive oyster-beds.

The Admiral, believing that the pearls lay more to the west, followed that direction with his caravels and anchored opposite the mouth of the Paria river which falls into the Gulf. The cacique of the district and his son entertained the officers of Columbus who landed on that picturesque coast. This courtesy need not excite our surprise, for in hospitable lands it has always been an unwritten law to treat with friendship the stranger disembarking for the first time on an unknown shore. After having tasted the tropical fruits and the palm wine laid before them by their hosts, each of the officers received on a dish of native earthenware some oysters full of pearls. They bore them to the Admiral as a token of their reception in that hospitable region, which the Admiral designated as *Tierra de Gracia* (Land of Grace). A strait about two leagues in breadth here breaks the line of coast and leads to a gulf into which

four rivers discharge their waters. The Admiral distinguished it with the name of *Golfo de las Perlas* (Gulf of Pearls). The presents of the caciques had intensified his desire to find the precious shells, but it was not there they lay.

Columbus was under the impression he could not find an outlet on the western side, and turned towards the north. He met with much difficulty in passing through the entrance of the Gulf of Paria and gave the name of Dragon to these straits on account of the anxiety he had felt whilst sailing through them. He breathed more freely when he entered the comparatively open waters of the Caribbean, within that group of islands which now constitute the eastern portion of the territory of Colon. He was seeking in a northern direction the oyster-beds which the Parian Indians had described to him, and he was approaching from the southeast an island to which he gave the name of Margarita, when he descried on the eastern shore of another island native divers plunging into the water, and returning to the surface laden with oysters. Columbus had at length discovered the oyster-beds of Cubagua, situated between Margarita and Coche. The surface of this island was arid, without either water or woodland, and the Guayquery fishermen were its only visitors. Yet it was there that opposite the Parian coast a city was to rise—that New Cadiz which boasted of its wealth, its buildings, and its trade, and which, in the course of time, was to disappear in the midst of the convulsions of nature, when both Indians and pearls had vanished, and the inhabitants, who during fifty years had lived on its produce, abandoned it as if its soil were accursed.

Anxious to establish relations with the natives who had gathered on the coast and were contemplating the Castilian vessels, Columbus sent off a boat with a sailor bearing a dish of Valencian earthenware. As soon as the sailor reached land, an Indian woman who stood preëminent in the group attracted the sailor's attention on account of the pearl chaplets she bore on her neck, and he turned toward her, making signs and offering her the dish. The woman understands him and moves nearer: the sailor breaks the dish in two, throws her the pieces, and she places before him in return the collar of pearls which had adorned her throat.

The boat then returns to the caravels and Columbus, full of

joy, contemplates a land which presents to him so many marvelous aspects. Another boat with officers, all provided with Valencian dishes and toys, then goes ashore. The Indian women dispute with each other for the possession of the dishes, giving up their bracelets and chaplets in exchange for what seemed to them more desirable—the earthenware adorned with colored figures whose effect was heightened by the enamel, and which they now saw for the first time.

Thus the first Castilian earthenware ever seen on the northern coasts of South America excited the simple admiration of the Guayquery tribes, who, with delirious delight, offered the rich pearls they had obtained from the bosom of the Caribbean, in order to procure these specimens of European ceramic art. From hut to hut and from tribe to tribe the Valencian dishes were admired like gifts that had come down from heaven. Two civilizations were thus meeting: one beautified by art, powerful, intelligent, clothed; the other possessing only the art of nature, hospitable, ignorant, and naked. Surprise, joy, and desire were reciprocal ; both Indians and Castilians rejoiced. Columbus alone was sad at heart, for he felt he had discovered that first opening through which, like an impetuous avalanche, insatiable cupidity was to overwhelm the land, and that no human power could close the breach. Anxious and fearful for the future, and disregarding the requests of his officers who wished to make a longer stay, the Admiral weighed anchor and, passing between the mainland and the island of Margarita, sailed toward Hispaniola.

The first hour of a sanguinary drama had struck in which all participants, animate and inanimate, were finally to disappear : oyster-beds, buildings, victims, and murderers, Indians and conquistadores, after fifty years of rivalry and oppression.

What is Cubagua, and where is it situated ? When, in the geological ages of America, a line of submarine hills rose parallel to the Cordillera of the Venezuelan coast, their summits appeared above water and constituted the chain of islands running east and west and which now form the territory of Colon. Cubagua, placed between Margarita and Coche, is one of these islands. It was an arid plateau, waterless and treeless, bearing only briars and brambles, and entirely uninhabited. Since prehistoric ages its

only visitors were the Indian fisherman who came to draw from the deep waters around it the pearls which were to adorn the necks and arms of the Parian maidens. But from the day when the conquistador, thirsting for adventure, glory, and gold, discovered the hidden wealth of the island it was reduced to slavery. Water was obtained from the Cumaná river, wood and fodder from the neighboring island of Margarita, food and articles for domestic use from Castile. The natives befriended the adventurers; exchange of products led to commerce and everything seemed smiling and prosperous until cupidity made its appearance in war harness and a struggle ensued in which the strong subdued the weak.

It was written that once the peninsular invader had found the pearl, slavery and death for the Indian were to follow as a necessary consequence.

Shortly after the departure of Columbus the first ranch was erected on the eastern coast of Cubagua; then came sheds and temporary stores—the first caravel anchored off the coast and with it the first pearl dealers. The Guayquery divers set to work with enthusiasm and plunged into the waves to obtain the oysters which were the first object of traffic between Venezuela and the European market. Little by little arose the city which was to bear the name of New Cadiz, and gradually, too, arose a tide of cupidity until it broke through all bounds and the unfortunate Indians had to cower under the lash, and the hot iron, the ignominious sign of slavery, marked their foreheads and arms.

Cubagua is the first point where wealth was wrung from the native; the first colony from which the conquistador[1] was to despoil Venezuela: the great slave market which opens the history of Spanish conquest in the southern portion of the continent. It was the trysting-point where gathered the filibusters who hunted down the native families, and of all those evil-doers who, like monsters from the abyss, destroyed in fifty years all that Providence had granted to those regions: the pearl beneath the waters and

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(1) In accordance with the practice of some writers we have left in the English text the Spanish word "Conquistador"; its literal meaning is conqueror, but Spanish writers apply it to all the early Castilian residents in America, even if they took no direct part in warfare.—*Translator's note.*

the Indian, free, hospitable, lover of his home, but who was doomed to succumb beneath hunger and suffering.

Cubagua was the cradle of Spanish colonization, a fair, a colony, an execution ground, a prison, and a tomb. Thither were brought by kidnappers from all points of the coast native families to be sold into slavery. There is some doubt as to the meaning of that scarlet C which furrowed amidst screams of pain the foreheads of the mothers, the youths, the children, torn from their homes to be conducted as slaves to Hispaniola. It may have meant Castile, Carib, Cubagua ; this matters little, but it left on the body of the freeman the stamp of opprobrium and death.

The day dawned, and with it sounded the crack of the lash on the shoulders of the Guayquery diver. But few minutes were granted to him to breathe, and his only reward for so much fatigue was a small amount of food and a perhaps limited water supply to quench his devouring thirst. Then when night arrived the prison chamber and chains were his lot, until another day of labor and pain came round.

In 1527, New Cadiz, the ancient city which in the Venezuelan isles was antecedent to that of Cumaná, obtained a corporation and the coat-of-arms of the Spain of Charles V. appeared on the doors of the municipal building. There were then in the city fine houses, churches, and stores; numerous dealers in pearls, water, comestibles, and all necessaries of life, frequented the city, thus encouraging industry and trade.

New Cadiz throve on this infamous slave traffic, but it was to have but a short lease of life: this Sodom of cupidity was to disappear amidst the convulsions of the earth and by the breath of the hurricane. One day in 1543 the edifices of Cubagua tottered and fell; the winds blew fiercely and New Cadiz ceased to exist. A few years later the oyster-beds became exhausted and the few remaining inhabitants, deprived of the necessaries of life, fled to other parts. Fifty years after its discovery by Columbus, Cubagua became again what it had been in prehistoric times—a desert without water or vegetation. The city, the oyster-beds, and the Indians had disappeared and the island is now only the tomb of a race sacrificed on the altars of avarice and cupidity.

When the European traveler sails along the coast where New

Cadiz once existed, it is with difficulty he can bring before his mind the events which there took place in the first half of the sixteenth century; he may, perhaps, not even inquire what is the origin of those ruins washed by the waves of the Caribbean, perhaps to hide them from our gaze. If the dead could arise from the tomb, we would hear some, now free from the persecution of man, tell their misfortunes, their martyrdom; others would relate the infamy they had perpetrated in life and perhaps regret they cannot continue their course of crime in the abyss of Death.

II.

Departure of Columbus for Hispaniola—His Silence Concerning the Discovery of Pearls—Expeditions which Followed that of Columbus—First Settlements of Adventurers in Cubagua—Origin of its Inhabitants and Trade—Bad Treatments Inflicted on the Indians—Divers from the Bahamas—Beginnings of Lawlessness—Sales of Slaves—The King's Fifth—Cubagua in 1509*—Formal Decrees for the Settlement of the Island—Situation of the Colony in* 1513*—Intentions of the Royal Audience of Hispaniola—System Followed for the Foundation of the Capital—First Expedition of Caribs Against Cubagua—Victory of the Spaniards—Lawlessness in the Gulf of Cariaco—First Fortress on the Banks of the Cumaná River—Substantial Buildings Erected in New Cadiz—Another Indian Invasion—Flight of the Inhabitants of Cubagua—Revels of the Invaders—Return of the Spaniards with an Armed Expedition—Reconstruction of the Church of New Cadiz—Privileges Granted by the King—First Filibusters in Margarita and Cubagua—Details of these Events—Complete Triumph of the Spaniards.*

Fifty years of oppression, horror, and crime were to follow the departure of Columbus from the waters of Cubagua and Margarita.[1] Perhaps in the Admiral's mind there loomed a presentiment of the period of devastation which was to follow the discovery of the pearl fisheries. Thus only are we able to explain the silence he observed concerning the unexpected richness of the oyster-beds in his cele-

[1] The line which shows the route of Columbus after leaving the Gulf of Paria, according to Codazzi, passes eastward of the islands of Margarita, Cubagua and Coche, and at a considerable distance from them. From this we might infer that Columbus did not visit these islands; but the tracing of Navarrete passes through the Canal which separates Cubagua from Margarita, and from there trends towards Hispaniola, thus indicating that the Admiral stopped between the islands of Margarita and Cubagua.

brated letter to the Catholic sovereigns, which is a remarkable summary of the third voyage of the Discoverer of America. This studied silence and his noncompliance with the wishes of his officers who had requested him to remain a few days more in this favored region show clearly that Columbus was anxious to keep this discovery secret. This, however, was impossible. Reports exaggerated by the cupidity of the bearers soon reached the neighboring West India islands, and somewhat later were spread on the other side of the Atlantic. Alluring visions of untold wealth tempted seekers and adventurers of every kind.

Hardly, therefore, had Columbus left the waters of the New Andalusia of the future, when adventurers from Hispaniola began to visit Cubagua in search of wealth. The first expedition which followed the route of Columbus, is that of Ojeda, which took place in 1499. This companion of the Admiral traded with the fishermen of Cubagua, coasted westward, discovered the gulf of Coquivacoa, extended the discoveries of Columbus, and then returned to Spain. A little later, the expedition of Niño and Guerra took place. They remained some time in Margarita and Cubagua, and collected a large quantity of pearls and other articles of trade. This expedition, which added much to the geographical knowledge of the Continent, had some unfortunate consequences for the explorers. Although they handed over to the authorities a considerable number of pearls, as the king's fifth, they were accused of not having given in the proper amount, and prosecuted. No proofs, however, were found against them, and they came triumphantly out of the ordeal, with the enviable reputation, according to Navarrete, of having achieved the most profitable voyage which up to that time had taken place in the New World.[1]

The next expedition after that of Niño and Guerra was that of Vicente Yañez Pinzon, brother of Pedro Alonzo, which sailed from Spain in the latter part of the same year, 1499. This conquistador, a former companion of Columbus, discovered the Amazon in 1500. After overcoming many obstacles in the waters of the great river, he managed to return to the gulf of Paria and sailed afterwards for Hispaniola. The voyage of Niño and Guerra had been produc-

[1] Navarrete.—"Coleccion de viajes y descubrimientos."

tive of wealth, but that of Pinzon was disastrous and fruitful in adventures only; he was sued by his creditors, and nothing remained to him but the glory and remembrance of his discovery.

In that year, 1500, about fifty adventurers from Hispaniola had already settled in the island of Cubagua, built ranchos, raised tents and huts, and introduced the apparatus required for oyster fishing. The fame of Niño's journey, the new pearls acquired from the Indians and the acquisitions the sailors had made in the different expeditions, caused the name of Cubagua to excite the greed not only of the Spaniards, but also of adventurers from all countries. The population soon began to increase, and each settler traded according to his aptitudes or fancy. Some brought wood from Margarita, others transported water from the Cumaná river, seven leagues distant; the larger number worked the oyster fisheries, as likely to be most profitable. At first the Indians were won over with trifles, brought over from Spain, and deceptive promises, the common language of all deceivers; but within a short time cupidity caused force to be employed against the unfortunate native and compelled him to work for the sole profit of the speculators. As the fishermen of the immediate neighborhood were not sufficiently numerous to work the fisheries to their full extent, a large number of Indian slaves were brought over from the Bahamas. Being good swimmers and divers, they gave a great impulse to the pearl trade. These new laborers were employed as if they were only machines; after working all day beneath a burning sun, badly fed and worse treated, they were chained up at night so as to foil all attempts at escape. The slave-trade in Guayquery and Bahama natives became yearly more important, and there were times when a good diver was worth 150 ducats, a sum which may be considered as exorbitant for that period.

As it was required that the King's fifth should be set apart, fraud was practised to a large extent, for in this rabble of settlers there was neither order nor method of government. The only law was that of the strongest, and the weak authority of the officials sent to the island by the Royal Audience of Hispaniola was set at naught. Notwithstanding the frauds practised the King's fifth rose at first to 15,000 ducats per year, and it may reasonably be supposed that the Crown was defrauded of at least as much.

It may be said that Cubagua was fully settled about 1509 and contained all that was necessary for the wants of an infant community. The product of the fifth had given satisfaction to the King, and in that year he ordered a regular settlement to be established on the island. Don Diego Columbus, Governor of Hispaniola, received instructions to see to the execution of the regulations made by the Home Government, as it was notorious that the settlers were defrauding the Crown of its dues, oppressing beyond measure the Bahama Indians, and thereby inciting the natives to insurrection.[1] The prosperity of Cubagua continued to increase, and in 1513 the insolence of the settlers reached its acme. Infatuated with the wealth they had acquired through slave-labor, they disobeyed the orders of the Royal Audience of Hispaniola and eluded its instructions in a thousand ways. The produce of the oyster-beds was already waning, and the adventurers resolved to open up a new field of wealth. They determined, therefore, to send out hunting parties in the neighboring districts, in search of inoffensive Indians, who were kidnapped by deceit or force, transported to Hispaniola and sold there into slavery. Thus began this iniquitous trade, which was followed later by the introduction of the African negro on the American continent.

In order to remedy this evil, the Royal Audience sent several times to Cubagua inspectors whose duty it was to preserve order and correct abuses, but its well-meant endeavors were always foiled. The judges were corrupted, and joined the ring of adventurers, which for years had known how to evade both the instructions of the Governor of Hispaniola and the decrees of the king. The only result obtained by these inspectors was that of introducing some order and method in the establishment of the city. They supervised the construction of houses and determined the sites where the Custom House, Government buildings, offices, and warehouses were to be erected.

In 1515, when the city boasted of all the environments of a civilized community, the island was attacked by Carib pirates. They wanted to get a share of the wealth the Spaniards had collected, and had fixed in advance the day on which they assembled

[1] Herrera.—"Historia de las Indias occidentales."

for the expedition. Fortunately a vessel arrived at the very moment of the attack and encouraged by this seasonable aid, the Spaniards completely defeated the invaders.

The possibility of native expeditions against the island was not the only source of anxiety for its inhabitants. All the water for the needs of the community had to be brought from a distance and this necessity was the cause of constant trouble on the coast of the Gulf of Cariaco. The crafty Guayqueris frequently attacked the crews of the tank-boats and hand to hand engagements ensued between the Spaniards and the natives. In 1522 the construction of the first fort of Cumaná put an end to these skirmishes and Cubagua continued to progress with surprising rapidity. Stone buildings arose on every side as the wealth of the inhabitants increased. According to the statement of one of the conquistadores of Venezuela who witnessed the development of the colony, the finest houses in Cubagua belonged to Barrio Nuevo, Barrera, Herrera, Castellanos, Beltran, Diego Caballero, and other magnates, who were notable citizens in those early days of Venezuela. But good fortune is transitory, and so much prosperity was not to be unmixed with bitterness.[1] In consequence of the destruction of the monasteries in 1520 on the coasts of the Continent, through causes we shall mention later, the Indians, victorious in Maracapana and Cumaná, again assailed the shores of Cubagua. At the news of their arrival the principal Alcalde, Antonio Flores, lost heart and his cowardice became contagious. Nearly all resolved to fly to Hispaniola, although they had three hundred valid men, two caravels, and arms and ammunition in abundance. Embarking on the caravels and other smaller vessels they abandoned the capital, leaving in the hands of the invaders large quantities of wine, victuals, and valuable goods. From the sea, whence they were watching their opportunity, the Indians witnessed this cowardly flight, and rushing on the abandoned city, put it to sack. The victors, drunk with wine, celebrated their victory with wild revelry, plundered and destroyed everything they could reach, and then

[1] The first historian of Venezuela, Fray Simon, tells us nothing concerning the settlement of Cubagua, and the development and trade of this island during the first thirty years of the sixteenth century.

withdrew. This unfortunate event was the cause of the massacres of Ocampo and Castellon, when the Cubaguan fugitives returned. It was also the occasion of the erection of the first fort of Cumaná in 1522.

The time had come when the first Venezuelan settlement, the first commercial colony of the continent, was to receive a name. By order of the Emperor the city was designated as New Cadiz.[1] We do not know exactly what its population then was, but we may reasonably suppose that the place contained over 1,500 inhabitants, for the solidity and number of the houses were signs of rapid development. Later, in the year 1527, the Emperor authorized the citizens to select every year from amongst themselves an ordinary Alcalde, who was to judge civil and criminal causes; none of the royal officers, however, were eligible. Eight Regidors were also designated. Their names were: Giraldo de Viernes, Andrés Fernando, Vicente Dávila, Francisco de Portillo, Alonso de Rojas, Pedro de Alegria, Martín de Ochandiano (who was also made treasurer of the island), and Juan Lopez de Archuleta who was also named inspector (veedor). According to the orders of the sovereign, one-fifth of the produce of the pearls was to be set aside, in whatever point of the continent they might be discovered, and under severe penalties it was forbidden to hoard them. He also sent Pedro de los Rios to put the Treasury in possession of the pearl islands. At the same date the Emperor contributed five hundred dollars for the reconstruction of the church of New Cadiz, which had been burnt down. The city received a regiment under the orders of Pedro Ruiz de Matienza, and the Emperor granted to Capt. Jacome Castellon a coat-of-arms representing the fort which he had erected on the Cumaná coast, and which had contributed so much to the development of Cubagua.

At the time these royal favors were causing general satisfaction throughout the colony, the Carib pirates in great numbers again invaded the island. The attack was fiercely conducted, but the defense was obstinate and valorous. After a severe engagement victory remained with the Spaniards, who only lost a small number of men, whilst many natives were killed. One hundred of

[1] Nueva Cadiz, capital de la isla de Cubagua, etc., etc.

the assailants, however, made good their retreat, and, embarking in their canoes, attacked Puerto Rico a few days later. In consequence of these events, it was allowed by royal decree to reduce all Caribs to slavery, as being unworthy of better treatment.

About the same time, a citizen of Milan, Luis Lampugnano by name, submitted to the Emperor an apparatus of his invention for the oyster fisheries in Cubagua: no divers were required to work it. The Emperor granted him a patent for six years, under the condition of the crown receiving one-third of the produce. The inhabitants of Cubagua were informed of the concession obtained by Lampugnano, and on his arrival in the island went out to meet him, saying: "Return to the Emperor and tell him that, if he is so liberal in disposing of what does not belong to him, he does not hold the right to dispose of the oysters which live at the bottom of the sea."[1] Charles V. thought it best to cancel the concession, stating it had been made on the condition it should not encroach on the territory of the proprietors of Cubagua. On account of this decision Lampugnano was unable to pay the enormous expenses of the expedition. He remained five years in Cubagua, and then died insane.

Up to that time Cubagua had been the object of the rapacity of the Spaniards only, but strangers were now to follow the path opened by the conquistadores. These were the days in which first appeared the celebrated filibusters, whose only law was force and only object rapine. Towards the middle of October, 1528, an expedition of French filibusters arrived off the island of Margarita. Their squadron consisted of a large ship, a caravel wrested from the Portuguese on the high seas, and a tender. One hundred and seventy well-armed men, with the requisite war material, were on board. The pilot of this small squadron was a Spaniard, a native of Cartaya, Pedro Ingenio by name, who had joined the French against his countrymen. The authorities of Cubagua, aware of the arrival of the French at Margarita, called the people to arms, and stood on their guard.

As soon as the filibustering squadron arrived off Cubagua, the port officials went out in a boat to find out who the strangers were.

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[1] Benzoni.—"Historia del Nuevo Mundo."

To the first questions of the Spaniards, the French answered that their ship was the *Sarco* from Seville ; this answer immediately betrayed their real purpose, because the *Sarco* had arrived some time previously. With honeyed words the French invited the Spaniards to come on board, hoping thus to be able to capture them ; but the latter were acquainted with this artifice, which they often used against the Indians, and made good their retreat to the city, where they warned their fellow citizens of their danger. The filibusters made a feint of withdrawing, but on the following day they again entered the waters of the harbor and endeavored to effect a landing. This, however, they were unable to do, being bravely met and repulsed by the Cubaguans. The check irritated the French commander: he began to bombard the city; the Cubaguans returned the fire with spirit. The authorities of the town ordered the brigantines and caravels, of which there were more than thirty then in the harbor, to be armed at once. The greater part of the military force and a large number of Indians, provided with poisoned arrows, were embarked on the Cubaguan fleet. They impetuously attacked the enemy, and boarded the caravel, which received them with balls of burning pitch and a severe musketry fire. In the struggle which ensued two Spaniards were put *hors de combat,* and thirteen Frenchmen were wounded by poisoned arrows, and died in frightful agony. After this attack hostilities ceased, and the French endeavored to offer for sale the merchandize they had on board. An unexpected incident, however, foiled their purpose. Some Biscayans and Navarrese, who were prisoners of the invaders, managed to escape to land and revealed to the authorities that the Frenchmen were simply freebooters, and that their real object was to take the island. The whole population then rose like one man, and swore to die or sink the hostile ships. The brigantines made a fresh sally, and attacked the tender in which they seized arms and more than fifteen hundred ducats' worth of clothing. Thirty-five men of the enemy were killed or captured. The French were compelled to withdraw, and the dismantled squadron sailed for the coasts of Puerto Rico and Mona. The filibusters there set free the Portuguese caravel they had captured ; it made its way to Hispaniola, where it reported the events which had occurred.

A powerful squadron immediately sailed from San Domingo to give chase. It came up with the Frenchmen, and an engagement ensued which lasted for two days. The tender was so severely damaged, that, although it made good its escape during the night, it foundered at sea. Thus ended the first expedition of foreign filibusters against Venezuela.[1]

Chroniclers disagree concerning the incidents of this expedition. According to Herrera, the inhabitants of New Cadiz entered into friendly relations with the Frenchmen after the first attack in which the latter were repulsed. They wanted the filibusters to sell their goods and sent them two Spaniards who were to remain on board as hostages, whilst the French landed their goods and sold them. The foreigners, however, wanted to impose on the city a ransom of one thousand marks[2] of pearls, but the Cubaguans refused to submit to this extortionate demand. Herrera does not mention any Spaniard who served as pilot on board the filibustering squadron, or any who escaped and took refuge in Cubagua. According to the latter author, when the Frenchmen began to land their goods, an Indian escaped from the city and informed their chief that the Cubaguans had imprisoned those of his men who were in Cubagua, and were planning a night attack on the squadron with the intention of sinking it. This news caused the Frenchmen to weigh anchor immediately, carrying away the hostages and abandoning their companions on shore. After having burnt down San German, in the island of Puerto Rico, and pillaging the island of Mona, the chief of the filibusters wrote to the Governor of Hispaniola, complaining of the conduct of the Cubaguans. He further threatened to return and execute ten Spaniards for one Frenchman, in case ill treatments were inflicted on his countrymen detained in the island. The only answer of the Governor of Hispaniola was to give chase to the filibusters and render them powerless to carry out their threats.

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[1] Fernandez Oviedo y Valdez.—"Historia general y natural de las Indias."

[2] The mark was equivalent to eight ounces.—*Translator's note.*

III.

Slave-Hunters in Macarapana—Infamous Traffic—Development of New Cadiz—Royal Ordinances—Earthquake of 1530—*Disasters on the Gulf of Cariaco—The Licentiate Prado Endeavors to Check the Outrages of the Cubaguans—Measures Adopted by the Audience of Hispaniola—New Oyster-Beds at Coche and Margarita—The Carib Indians are Marked by Royal Ordinance—Fresh Outrages—Decay of Cubagua—Sad Fate of the Natives—Marking and Sale of Slaves—Opinions of the Chroniclers Benzoni and Las Casas—Descriptions More Horrible Than Those of Dante—Disastrous End of New Cadiz—Hurricane and Earthquake of* 1543—*The Chronicler Castellanos—Reflexions—The Coat-of-Arms of Charles V.*

The triumph of the Spaniards emboldened the inhabitants of New Cadiz, and they did all in their power to develop the settlement they had begun a few years before in Maracapana. Under pretence of protecting the island against invasion on the part of the natives, the men-at-arms who occupied this post, made forays in the surrounding country, and kidnapped all the Indians they could find. They at once conducted the captives to Cubagua where they were sold as slaves. The settlers of Maracapana were simply slave-hunters. Amongst their leaders there figured a certain Ojeda, who, according to Las Casas, was the father of the conqueror of Coquibacoa.

These cruel abuses necessarily led to the diminution and destruction of the natives; harassed by the Spaniards they had to fight or die, or fly to the forest solitudes. The King of Spain, informed of this traffic, as illegal as it was immoral, forbade reducing the Indians to slavery and decreed severe penalties against those who would continue to molest them. The Cubaguans understood immediately that one of the most important branches of their prosperous commerce was going to disappear and that the colony would soon begin to decay. To the vicissitudes through which it

had passed were to succeed the convulsions of nature—the earthquake and the hurricane. The strong fort on the banks of the Cumaná river had just been completed, when, on the morning of September 1, 1530, the waves of the gulf of Cariaco suddenly arose, invaded the coast, covered even the tops of the trees and lost themselves in the distance. The mainland and islands were shaken, fissures yawned in the plains, a portion of the hills sunk down, and the cataclysm continued during several days. Sulphurous waters arose from the fissures, one of which was transformed into an arm of the sea. The Cordillera tottered under the shocks, many Indian huts were swallowed up, and the alarm was general amongst the inhabitants of Cubagua and the mainland:

"There was now no war, but the earth trembled and moved; many of the hills sank down and spread destruction amongst the barbarous inhabitants of the land who were in the neighborhood of the cataclysm. The roar of the waves was such that it caused death-like fear.

"Many perished through fear and left life in anguish. Those who remained alive confessed the cause of the evil they had suffered—it was the iniquity they had committed against those who deserved not evil. The quake and turmoil caused a great part of the fortress to fall.[1]"

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[1] Pues en esta sazón faltando guerra
Hubo tan gran temblor y movimiento,
Que derribó de la vecina sierra
Gran parte con mortal asolamiento:
Del bárbaro vecino desta tierra
Cercano del horrendo rompimiento
Bramidos de las ondas fueron tantos
Que causaron mortíferos espantos.

De cuyo miedo muchos perecieron,
Y con temor la vida despedían;
Los que vivos quedaron ya dijeron
La causa desde mal que padecían:
Que fué por las maldades que hicieron
En aquellos que mal no merecían;
También del terremoto y aspereza
Cayó gran parte desta fortaleza.

—*Castellanos.—Elegias de varones ilustres de Indias,* 1 *Vol.*

Little by little, when the phenomenon had passed away, the implacable Castilians who were systematically devastating those regions, recovered their audacity, and continued satisfying on the unfortunate natives the worst appetites of avarice, luxuriousness, and cruelty.

In 1532 there came to Cubagua the famous Ordaz, who was returning from his celebrated expedition, the first effected in the waters of the Orinoco. It was written that the island of Cubagua should be the last landing-place of that bold young adventurer; he was arrested by the sergeant-at-arms of New Cadiz and shipped to Hispaniola. One of his countrymen poisoned him during the voyage. The Home Government was continually urging the Royal Audience of Hispaniola to maintain order in Cubagua and check the misconduct of the settlers. In 1533 the Licentiate Prado was ordered to meet the Alcaldes and Regidors of New Cadiz and of the town of La Asuncion in the island of Margarita. According to the instructions of the Royal Audience, these officials were to constitute themselves into a commission and visit the neighboring districts in company of monks and sworn interpreters; the customary injunctions were to be made to the Indians in presence of a notary public. The Royal Audience wished by this means to acquire correct information concerning the war with the natives. In case hostilities were decided, the commissioners were to sign a report to that effect, which was to be forwarded to the sovereign, who would then give orders to pursue the Indians as rebels. It would have been impossible to edict a measure more favorable to the slave-dealers, for the result would infallibly be war.

No regular war declaration, however, was required to hunt down the Indians. The produce of the oyster fisheries had fallen off so much in 1534 that the dealers had to seek some other branch of trade in order to obtain the same profit as formerly. On the other side, the disorder and outrages, which the authorities of the colony could not repress, caused many of the new adventurers, on their arrival in the island, to take to that line of business in which there was least competition. There is nothing more horrible than the conflict which takes place on a vacillating raft during a night of shipwreck, when all the victims, following only the instinct of self-preservation, become like wild beasts struggling over their

prey. Thus the Cubaguans, whilst the pearl banks were disappearing, fought furiously with each other to obtain possession of the last remnants of vanishing wealth. There was another cause which tended to diminish the celebrity of the oyster-beds of Cubagua: in 1529 similar fisheries had been discovered and worked in the waters of the neighboring island of Coche. The produce of one month only had amounted to more than 1,500 marks of pearls, and a minimum average of 12,000 marks per year was, therefore, to be expected. The King had granted the island of Coche, in 1526, to the former inspector of Cubagua, Juan Lopez de Archuleta, who, to show his gratitude, forwarded to the sovereign the first pearls found in the new workings.

The existence of the two fisheries caused between the islands of Cubagua and Margarita a certain amount of rivalry, which increased with time. Enmity and conflicts ensued until, by royal decree, Margarita was placed in the jurisdiction of Cubagua, and orders were given to complete the fort which had been in construction on the shore of the former island. In 1534, a certain Jeronimo de Ortal seized and marked Indians on the coast of the Venezuelan mainland. Not to be behindhand, the Cubaguans joined this slave-hunter, and incredible cruelties were committed. Fortunately there is a Providence which watches over the destinies of mankind, and punishes evil-doers in its own good time. Ojeda Ortal, Cedeño, and all the promoters of the infamous slave-trade, came shortly to a miserable end: all were killed by the natives on the shores or rivers of Venezuela.

This revenge of populations suffering from pillage, devastation, and the reduction to slavery of parents and children, was but just and logical; yet it induced the Government to take measures which only increased the evil. In consequence of an act of piratry committed by Carib Indians on the coast of Margarita, in 1535, the King again decreed that the Caribs should be reduced to bondage; they were to be considered as slaves, used as such, and marked, if a marking-iron was available; an annual report of the number of slaves marked was to be forwarded to the Home Government.[1]

In 1539 new oyster deposits were discovered in Margarita, the

[1] Herrera.—Work previously quoted.

Testigos, and Cape de la Vela. The zone of the pearl fisheries was extending, and fresh Spanish and Italian adventurers were to prey on the wealth extracted from the molluscæ, which during centuries had quietly rested beneath the waters.[1] Cubagua was on the wane; its pearl deposits were disappearing, because the Indians, urged by the insatiable cupidity of the conquistadores, had ended by extirpating them, but there were still natives remaining; on their athletic shoulders, on the tender arms of their children, the burning-iron inscribed the deed of property, according to the sentence passed by legal cupidity. This was the state of things in Cubagua when Benzoni visited the island in 1542, in company with some slave-dealers who traded in Paria, the coasts of Cumaná, Cubagua, and other places. The Italian sailor thus speaks of this horrible traffic of the first Venezuelan colonists:

"During our stay in Cubagua, Captain Pedro de Calice arrived with more than four hundred slaves he had collected. All these unfortunate beings were almost fainting either from want of nourishment, excessive labor and fatigue, or from the anguish entailed by separation from country, parents, and children. If some of them, overwhelmed with suffering, were unable to follow the others, the Spaniards, not wishing to leave any behind for fear of some conspiracy, urged them forward with the whip till some would expire under the blows. It was really pitiful to look upon these wretched creatures, naked, worn-out, maimed, hungry, infirm, or crippled. Sorrowing mothers, mourning their misfortunes, were accompanied by two or three children; all were bound with ropes or chains round the neck and arms. There was no maiden amongst them who had not been dishonored. . . . All the slaves collected by the Spaniards were conducted to Cubagua, where the officials collected the King's fifth in pearls, native gold, or money. The letter C was inscribed with a hot iron on the forehead and arms of all, and then their owners did with them what

[1] According to Herrera, the pearl fisheries produced two millions of duros during the years of abundance. At first the royal fifth amounted to fifteen thousand ducats per year. According to Humboldt this was remarkable, if the value of money at that time and the shameless amount of fraud is taken into account. In the first years of the fisheries the island of Coche produced 1,500 marks of pearls per month.

they liked, distributing them amongst the soldiers, or tossing dice for them."[1]

This horrible description does not stand alone. Here is the heartrending narrative of Bartolome de Las Casas:

"Hardly had the Indian pearl fishermen issued from the water with a supply of oysters, when their masters forced them to dive again without allowing them time to recruit their strength and draw breath. If through sheer necessity, the Indian remained above water a few minutes, the master's whip obliged him to dive again. Nearly all the slaves thus employed died in a short time. They were fed on the remains of oysters; occasionally they got some cassave bread, but they never received any wine or strengthening liquor to restore their weakened bodies, which had become covered with scales through the continual contact of salt water. At night these poor creatures were confined in stocks and loaded with chains so as to preclude any possibility of escape. At dawn their dreary round of work again began; many disappeared devoured by sharks; others would faint away or vomit blood; most of them died of hunger, cruel treatment, and despair."[2]

This is a picture unequaled by any of Dante's "Inferno"—human beings like unto spectres, covered with scales, with shoulders furrowed by the whip, ulcerated, dying of hunger, alternately plunging into and rising from the waters, bearing to their implacable tormentors the prizes they had wrested from the bosom of the seas.

This rising wave of iniquity, this infamous and never-ending traffic, this continual assassination of defenseless populations which were to disappear like the inhabitants of Hispaniola and Puerto Rico, this holocaust of victims of the lash, slavery, hunger, and want of sleep did not satisfy the greed of the conquistadores. The oyster-beds and the inhabitants of the Venezuelan shores and islands had ceased to exist; the last of the natives had witnessed his sisters dishonored and his family ruthlessly sacrificed. But one thing was wanting to complete this picture of desolation: the earthquake and the hurricane came, overturned the buildings

[1] Benzoni.—"Historia del Nuevo Mundo."

[2] Las Casas.—"Historia de las Indias."

erected by the sweat and blood of the slave, and wiped out this infamous civilization.

One morning of 1543, New Cadiz was destroyed, not by the action of man, but by the dread forces of Nature. Castellano thus describes in quaint Spanish verse the last hours of the doomed city:[1]

"The rain poured from the skies in such quantities and with such violence that the stoutest courage was shaken and terror filled the most valiant soul; a dreadful roar arose from earth and sea; darkness and gloom supervened.

"No living thing felt its life secure; the streets overflowed with raging torrents; none could stay in abodes threatened with disruption; the most secure asylum was replete with danger and death.

"Sometimes men stealthily follow the track of a criminal; their arms and foresight cut off all escape; lances and swords are placed against his breast and surrounded by enemies he knows not where to turn in his anguish.

"Thus dangers enclosed us on every side; peril was met by leaving our abodes, life was risked by remaining within them; the whole island trembled to its center under the action of the hurricane; those were most happy who had already tasted death.

"In God alone could we trust, for there was no help in anything of earth. As time passed the disaster increased; our habitations

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[1] El agua de los cielos era tanta,
Y con tan grandes impetus venía,
Que el más entero brío se quebranta,
Y el ánimo más fuerte más temía:
Ruido temoroso se levanta
Que de la mar y tierra procedía,
Sobrevino la noche muy escura,
Y con ella grandísima tristura.

No se hallaba ya cosa viviente
Que tuviese seguro de su vida,
Porque la calle va como creciente
De rios con furor de la venida;
En las casas no puede parar gente
Por los amenazar con su caida,
Y lo que más seguro parecía
Peligro, mal y muerte prometía.

were in continued motion and all fled from them; to avoid the walls and ramparts seemed to be the most sure remedy.

* * * * * * *

"Noise and uproar resounded; this was no deceptive siren's song. Buildings, lofty roofs, and turrets, the Abode of the Holy Sacrifice, residences which I have seen rich and fair, fell on every side; the cry of fear, the wail of affliction was heard.

"The tempest threw down the best and strongest edifices: the

Bien ansí como cuanto por acechos
Siguen del delincuente las pisadas,
Que con bastantes armas y pertrechos
Le tienen las salidas ocupadas;
Y aquí le ponen lanzas á los pechos,
Y allí ni más ni menos las espadas,
El cual siendo de tantos rodeado
No sabe qué hacerse de turbado;

Salíamnos ansí desta manera
Aquí y allí peligros al encuentro,
Pues era grande riesgo salir fuera,
Peligro de la vida quedar dentro:
Tiembla la isla toda donde quiera
Por aire conmovida desde el centro;
Aquel que poseía mejor suerte
Estaba ya gustando de la muerte.

Sólo de Dios se tiene confianza,
Que de la tierra ya nadie se fía
Pues cuanto mayor era la tardanza
Tanto más el rigor invalecía:
Las moradas hacían gran mudanza
Y dellas cada cual se retraía
Huir de las paredes y del muro
Parecía remedio más seguro.

* * * * *

Oíamos murmurios y bullicios,
No con falaces cantos de sirenas;
Aquí y allí caían edificios,
Las altas azoteas, las almenas,
La casa de los santos sacrificios,
Moradas que yo vi ricas y buenas;
Aqui sonaban voces y alli gritos,
Aquéllas con temor, éstos aflitos.

framework of the strongest roofs was riven asunder by the earthquake: terrible was the uproar: the crash of those buildings of stone, the rending asunder of their beams and bars, caused men to stand aghast.

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"Here was heard the painful wail of the child separated from its mother: there the mother mourned for her child as lost; some

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Lo mejor y lo más fortalecido
Con la gran tempestad viene cayendo,
La trabazón del techo más asido
Con fuerza del temblor se va rompiendo:
Causaba gran temor aquel ruido
Asombraba la furia del estruendo
De aquellas derrumbadas canterías
Y quiebras de las vigas y alfajías.

* * * * *

Aqui sonaba doloroso llanto
Del niño de su madre divertido,
Alli las madres hacen otro tanto
Lamentando su hijo por perdido;
Otras por acullá con gran espanto
Colgadas de los hombros del marido,
Hacen mayores ser los terremotos
Confusísimas voces y alborotos.

Fueron durables estos detrimentos
Mas no con una misma destemplanza;
Al fin cesó la fuerza de los vientos
Y llegaron las horas de bonanza:
Ningunos muertos, pero descontentos
Determinados á hacer mudanza,
Por no tener recurso de vivienda,
Eso me da soltero que con prenda.

Otros de nuevas leyes ignorantes
Permanecian en sus desvaríos,
Y algunos hombres viejos contratantes
Que tenian sus barcos y navíos,
Que iban y venian como antes
A contratar por otros señoríos
Angosta vida, seca, miserable,
Y tal que no podia ser durable.

—*Castellanos.*—Work quoted.

women were borne forth on the shoulders of their husbands; the earthquake increases the confusion and clamor.

"Lasting but unequal was the destruction. At length the force of the winds was spent and the hours of calm arrived; many who were not killed were dissatisfied and determined to change their habitation because of the failure of resources for the maintenance of life; it was then better to be single than to possess a family.

"Others unwilling to know new laws remained in their former courses; also, old sailors, the owners of barks and boats, came and went as before to obtain from other domains a narrow, sordid, miserable life, such as could not be lasting."

Thus disappeared New Cadiz.

The earthquake of 1543 was only one of the agencies which contributed to the decay and final ruin of Cubagua. During thirty years the oyster-beds had been worked to exhaustion, the natives had been sold and tortured, the inhabitants of the mainland exterminated from its shores, filibusters had come and gone like a living tide with constant rise and fall; all these causes jointly effected the destruction of a settlement which was not based on the progressive wealth of nature and the civilizing action of man. Notwithstanding the decay of the settlement, the infamous slave traffic continued actively from 1530 to 1550. It was the last struggle of cupidity and greed, feeding on these remains, like hyenas on a putrefying carcass. Fifty years had passed away and the principal conquistadores of the continent had gone to their account; they did not, therefore, witness the complete destruction of the first colony of the eastern coast of Venezuela. What now remained of Cubagua? The oyster-beds, exhausted and incapable of reproduction; a town, whose ruins were to become the haunts of poisonous reptiles; a few living mummies, worn out by hunger and fatigue, with skins furrowed by the lash. Fathers and children—two complete generations — had disappeared: the grandchildren still remained to bear the last bundles of wood, the last casks of water. Under the waves the corpses of their progenitors mingled with the remains of the oyster, had fed the sharks who had sated their hunger with the flesh of the native divers.[1]

[1] In the main court of the building which was expressly erected for the

According to Laet,[1] the natural sources of wealth of Cubagua had disappeared in 1533; but as the slave-trade still continued, the colony lingered till 1550, when it was gradually deserted. It became again what it had been—what it now is—a depopulated region, without vegetation, without water, without resources of any kind—a desert island.

Thus ended the first Spanish colony in Venezuelan waters. Spain had then just regained its complete independence by expelling its oppressors of eight centuries; but the conquest of the New World, so glorious in many ways, presents sinister aspects. Cupidity overpowered nobler instincts; cupidity made man like unto the beast of the field. A race was exterminated, because it was declared to consist of savages and cannibals, and, in reality, it was the invaders who were the savages and the cannibals. The native trusted to Castilian generosity, but this generosity was only a decoy: he believed in the stranger's promises, but these promises were but a lie. Deceit and self-interest were veiled under the appearance of protection; there was no virtue in this—only meanness. The crimes and infamy of the colonists were not, however, so much the fault of Spain as of the intervening ocean. Distance

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Exhibition of the Centenary of Bolívar, there lies a coat-of-arms cut out in calcareous Cumaná stone. This is the coat-of-arms of Charles V. It remained on the door of the Corporation Building of New Cadiz, the capital of the island of Cubagua, from 1527 up to 1550, at which date the causes mentioned in this historical sketch caused the island to be abandoned. During centuries it survived the destruction of New Cadiz, and was finally covered up by the sea, as the coast seems to have sunk down through volcanic action. After having long remained on the soil and been for many years submerged, it was accidentally discovered and raised from under water on the eve of the Bolívar Centenary in 1883. This relic of the first Venezuelan colony, the only one of that period of extermination, is all that remains to us of the Cubagua of the conquistadores. The drawing which accompanies these pages is the work of the well-known artist and writer Don Francisco Davegno, who published it in the columns of the *Cojo Ilustrado* in 1892. In comparing it with the original design of the coat-of-arms of Charles V., a difference can be noted. This probably comes from the sculptor having only had at his disposal the ordinary limestone of the locality. What the artist was obliged to omit can easily, however, be supplied in imagination.

[1] Laet.—Nobus orbis.

always constitutes an obstacle to truth; it renders the horizon distant, and leaves crimes in the shade.

On the other side, neither time nor the progress of history have been able to modify, much less to destroy, the action of human cupidity, the sister of egotism. Now, like in earlier times, the lowest passions of the human breast have always formed the first stepping-stone to conquest. What is taking place at present is a picture of what has happened at all times and at all epochs. English civilization in India was begun in pools of blood, and international-like civil wars have always had for their motto greed, pillage, persecution, and death. Fortunately the Spain of the conquest knew how to oppose to brute force, always destructive, the force of reason and conviction, always civilizing. Behind the frightful devastation which the sword left in its path, came the civilization which arose in presence of the apostles of the Gospel. These two epochs supplement each other, and will always speak in favor of the great nation which, in the New World, founded modern society on the ruins of the ancient; thus, without departing from their anthropological origin, many races were transformed by the education derived from the Gospel. The native inhabitant did not disappear entirely, but underwent a complete metamorphosis.

If it is the duty of the philosophical historian to retrace the acts of human societies without hiding their evil side, he should also penetrate the depths of each epoch, so as to bring to light the different causes which have influenced these societies since their origin.

It may be considered that the Venezuelan colony which follows Cubagua in date, was the city of New Cordoba, now Santa Ines de Cumaná, which was begun in 1521; also La Asuncion, capital of the island of Margarita, settled in 1525. As will be seen, the New Cordova of Castellon was to follow the New Toledo of Ocampo, origin of the modern city of Cumaná, whilst La Asuncion was to continue under the pacific government of Villalobos. As to New Cadiz, its tomb bears no inscription; it is an ossuary of victims sacrificed by the knife, hunger, thirst, heat, and the lash; the remains of human bones and the débris of the oyster form a sterile and petrified layer which covers like a shroud the soil of that forsaken region.

THE STANDARD OF PIZARRO.

To the north of the plateau which contains lake Titicaca, the highest sheet of water on the surface of the globe, and at the foot of the rocky mass in which the Bolivian Andes unite their various branches to form the gigantic knot of Cuzco, lies, like a queen of the mountains, the sacred city of the Incas, the Rome of the New World, Cuzco the graceful. The action of time destroyed everything great and wonderful in the primitive history of America: palaces and temples of gold, cyclopean roads and fortresses, idols and objects of every kind, made out of the precious metal by the labor of the slave. A whirlwind of cupidity passed over the land; then came death, and nothing remained of the past but shapeless ruins, desolate cities and fields, in the midst of smiling and productive nature, the cradle and sepulchre of two mighty races which have disappeared in the night of time. Both are extinct, but they have left the traces of their wonderful deeds; the one shows its august ruins, the remains of titanic achievement, when the cyclops of the New World bore on their shoulders the ponderous rocks which were used for constructing the Mecca of the Andes; the other can point to its modern cities, a civilization dating back three centuries, its glorious banners, symbols of Spanish greatness, when, not satisfied with filling the Old World with the noise of its name, the sons of the Peninsula conquered one-half of the globe, in order to plant on the snowy peaks of the Andes, and on the most elevated cities of the world, the glorious standard of Castile.[1]

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[1] We have read with great interest the remarkable historical notice concerning the standard of Pizarro in the possession of the Municipal Council of Carácas, which was published in No. 5 of the *Cojo Ilustrado* and which was signed by a writer who hides his name under the pseudonym of *El Cojo rugil.* The documents which it contains and the engravings which illustrate it, brought back to us the memory of the civic festival held in 1872 in honor of the Liberator. On that auspicious occasion we bore the standard of Pizarro in company with two of our colleagues of the Managing Committee. The perusal of the article of the *Cojo Ilustrado* also caused us to remember the collabora-

The name of this city, bathed in the mists of the Andes, which seem to envelop it both as a nuptial veil and as a shroud, calls to mind many a record of sublime barbarity, haughty magnanimity, and insane perfidiousness. In those districts were seen the most interesting episodes of the conquest of America: single combats, fabulous battles, prodigies of bravery and abnegation, unending devastation, insatiable cupidity, and also sublime virtues and sacrifices, when those wild regions witnessed for the first time the presence of the Christian missionaries, who watered the Indian meadows with their blood, and mingled their religious canticles with the sough of the winds in the primæval forests.

On the evening of the 15th of November, 1533, the great golden temple, erected by the Incas in honor of the god of day was reflecting the last rays of the luminary to which it had been consecrated, when the inhabitants of Cuzco saw in the distance an army oomposed of men mounted on animals to them unknown. In advance of the rapidly approaching strangers was borne a scarlet standard on which were embroidered the arms of the mighty monarch of Spain and Germany. The awestruck Indians awaited

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tion of our distinguished friend Don Francisco Davegno, who took part in our studies concerning the celebrated standard of Pizarro in a historical and artistic point of view. These researches interested us both and we believe our joint efforts have contributed to a better knowledge of this valuable relic of the Spanish conquest. The artist presented us with a colored sketch similar to that published in the *Cojo Ilustrado* and on our side we inserted in the columns of the *Opinion Nacional* of that date an article entitled *The Standard of Pizarro*, which we reproduced later in a work entitled *A Book in Prose*.

We are now placing before the public a second edition of these researches, enriched with all the additional information we have been able to get from South American writers within the last twenty years and we are grateful to our friend and colleague for having afforded us the opportunity of treating again and for the last time such a congenial subject.

To conclude, it only remains for us to reveal to our readers that *Rugil* is no other than Don Francisco Davegno, an Italian citizen, cultured and straightforward, kind and liberal in disposition. He is highly appreciated by the Italian colony in Venezuela, which considers him as one of the most persevering workers of modern progress. We, Venezuelans, join in applause with the *Cojo Ilustrado* and salute him as one of the most distinguished guests of our country. We trust he will continue those historical labors he has begun so well.

in superstitious fear the dawn of the coming day, in order to receive within their walls these men who seemed to them demi-gods descended from Heaven; yet these same fancied deities had just murdered in the most cowardly manner the Inca Atahualpa. At length the gates are opened and Pizarro, to the sound of trumpets, and in presence of an innumerable multitude of natives, enters the city constructed two centuries before by Manco-Capac, the august founder of the Peruvian monarchy.

Who were these men, already lords of America and insatiable despoilers of the wealth of the country? They were the heralds of a new civilization which was to destroy that of the Incas; they were the Spain of the Catholic sovereigns and of Charles V., sent by the Almighty to overthrow the idols of American heathenism and at the foot of the Cross to lay the foundations of future generations.

Before these men huts, palaces, and temples disappeared. The lust of gold, characteristic of the epoch, was the ruling motive of all their actions, and in the name of the Cross and the Sword they performed heroic deeds and committed unheard-of crimes. The mountains trembled when the two civilizations met; the rivers and meadows ran with blood; the unfortunate natives succumbed at length in this disproportionate struggle with the twin forces of nature and their invaders, which enveloped them like the boa encircles his victim in his deadly coils.

They fell on the scaffold and the funeral pile, in the fields, and in the temples; every rocky summit became a battlefield; every valley a charnel-house, every city a fortress. Citizens and soldiers, caciques and Incas, cottages and hamlets disappeared, and the new civilization soaring over pools of blood and heaps of ashes, laid the foundation of the cities of modern Perú. . . . In these horrible butcheries Almagro and the Pizarros were to meet the fate of Huascar and Atahualpa; in this universal anarchy a violent death was the doom of all the actors of the drama of blood and glory.

Of its native monuments of the past, the actual city of Cuzco only contains mutilated remains. Churches and other buildings erected during the fifteenth century rise on the site of the ancient sanctuary of the sun and over the precinct where once dwelt the Andine virgins. But that civilization which had conquered the

country in the name of Progress, and which during centuries was to remain in undisturbed and legitimate possession, was also one day to disappear in the name of the same Progress. The time was to come when fanatical, superstitious, limited in its ideas, full of mistaken economical theories, it closed its ears to friendly warnings, and entered into a hand-to-hand conflict not with the defenceless natives, but with fresh conquerors, who in the history of the Continent were to represent the second act of the American drama.

Who were these new conquerors of Perú? Were they, like in former times, strangers arrived from beyond the seas in quest of adventure and wealth? No; they were the sons of American Spain, the heirs of its glories, its constancy, its errors and virtues —ready for emancipation—the heralds of a new idea which was to change the destinies of the New World.

Throughout Spanish-American countries the Revolution began in one and the same year, 1810. When, in 1821, Colombia had already reached independence, Perú was in prey to anarchy, and the cause of the Revolution might have been considered as lost; but the arrival of the victorious legions of Colombia under the orders of Bolívar, gave fresh confidence to the patriots, moralized the war, and the final triumph speedily followed. On the 6th of August, 1824, Bolívar won the battle of Junin. In the first days of October, Laserna, the last of the Viceroys of Perú, departed from Cuzco, the sacred city, never to return. On the 9th of December rose the sun of Ayacucho, and the whole Spanish army with the Viceroy at its head surrendered as prisoners of war.

By a singular coincidence, on the very day of the battle in which the military power of the Viceroy of Perú was definitively crushed, he received the title of Count of the Andes, which the King of Spain had conferred upon him.

When the first fugitives brought to Cuzco the news of the disaster of Ayacucho, a committee of chiefs and the Royal Audience recognized as Viceroy Field-Marshal Tristan, the senior military commander at Arequipa. But an overwhelming number of victorious troops were marching on the sacred city. Tristan opened communications with Bolívar and Sucre, and accepted the capitulation of Ayacucho. In consequence, General Alvarez, resigning himself to the inevitable, opened the gates of Cuzco to the liberating legions.

The vanguard of the Colombian and Peruvian army entered the sacred city on the 24th of December, 1824. It consisted of Gamarra's and Miller's commands. Sucre, the commander-in-chief of the victorious army, intended arriving somewhat later without making himself known; but the population having been informed of his coming came out to meet him, and conducted him in triumph in the midst of acclamations of gratitude and enthusiasm.

Three hundred years after Pizarro had entered the capital of the Incas as representative of the great monarch, Charles V., Sucre, the trusted lieutenant of the great Bolívar, made his entry to render to Providence the homage of his gratitude in the temple of the Sun, now despoiled of its former wealth and transformed into a Christian church. It was in the sacred city that the victor of Ayacucho found amongst the ancient banners of Castile, the standard which Pizarro bore when he first entered Cuzco in 1533.

The mutilated standard which figured by the side of the historical objects which had belonged to the Liberator, in the Exhibition of October 28, 1872, and which the managing committee of the festival bore in the civic procession, is one of the most celebrated historical relics in the possession of the City of Carácas. In this standard we are reminded of the history of three generations, three glorious epochs—the past under native rule, the conquest of America, and the glorious emancipation of the American family of nations. This historical relic relates the vicissitudes of three centuries filled with grandeur and misery, loyalty, bravery, sublime abnegation. There was during that lengthy period much littleness and absurdity, but there were also many instances of warlike ardor and patriotic pride, for these qualities have always been held in high esteem both amongst the Spaniards and their descendants.

The public buildings, the archives, the material of war, the banners and antique standards, everything that belonged to the Government of the colony was given up in Cuzco to General Sucre.

It was on the 9th of December that the celebrated battle of Ayacucho was fought; on the following day the general in command of the victorious army took part in the triumph of the Liberator and continued his conquering progress. On the 12th, 16th,

18th, and 20th, he writes to Bolívar from Huamanga; on the 23d from Andahuaylas; on the 25th from Abacay, and on the 30th from Cuzco. He had then arrived in the sacred city of the Incas which received him with rejoicings and presented to him the standard of Pizarro. This standard had remained on one of the altars of the Cathedral of the city, Christian since 1533. The victorious general, believing that no present could be more worthy of Bolivar than this historical relic of the Castilian conquest, formally presented it to him. In a letter of December 30 he writes as follows:

"At length I am writing to you from Cuzco in the year 1824 and at the date inscribed on this letter there are no longer any hostile troops in Perú. You promised the people that you would bring the war to a close in the course of this year, and it is one of my greatest satisfactions that you have fulfilled your pledge.

"I present to you the standard which Pizarro bore to Cuzco 300 years ago: a portion of the material is in shreds, but it possesses the merit of having led the conquerors of Perú. I believe you will fully appreciate this trophy. I am not forwarding it at present for fear it may get lost: the first trustworthy official I send you will bear it. A. J. DE SUCRE." [1]

On the 24th of February, 1825, Sucre, writing from La Paz, again mentions to his chief the standard of Pizarro, and says: "I am forwarding to you to-day under open cover the dispatches and documents which are going in duplicate to the Colombian Government; the most important will be sent via Arequipa; I have entrusted them to an officer who will also take charge of the banners I have offered the Vice-President. General Lara has at present the flag of Pizarro in his possession, and I have ordered him to place it in your hands when he arrives at Arequipa, because it is my wish that this trophy which will be an honor to your sons should be presented to you when you reach the first Colombian troops. The honor proceeds from the liberation of Perú." [2]

It was quite natural for General Sucre to entrust to one of the most distinguished Colombian commanders the pleasing task of

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[1] O'Leary.—"Correspondencia de Sucre."

[2] O Leary.—Same work.

presenting to the Liberator, in presence of the first body they met of the troops victorious at Ayacucho, the intended guerdon. The presentation took place with imposing ceremonies when Bolívar entered the city of Arequipa.

On the 23d of April, in a letter dated from Potosi, Sucre again speaks of the royal banners he had sent, and thus writes to Bolívar on the subject: "Elizalde is going to Bogotá to present to the Government the congratulations of the army; I am thus fulfilling the instructions you gave me to send a general officer, to give an account of the battle of Ayacucho and with the official report of the action. As I did not do it at the time, I determined to forward it at the termination of the campaign. I am sending sufficient details to the Minister; I am writing at length to the Vice-President, and am forwarding to him the royal banners of these provinces. These trophies are of no small importance, and it is desirable they should be deposited in Bogotá."[1]

At length the officer bearing the banners intended for the museum of Bogotá and the banner of Pizarro, which was already the property of the Liberator, takes his departure. Under date of April 19, Sucre writes to the War Secretary of Colombia as follows:

"Brevet-Colonel Antonio Elizalde, adjutant-general, and deputed by the Army for the purpose of congratulating H. E. the Vice-President for the happy determination of the campaign of Colombian troops in Perú, which has ended the War of Independence, will have the honor of presenting to you the royal standard of Castile. This was the banner borne by the Spaniards when they entered this wealthy country three hundred years ago.

"This trophy, which the Army presents to Your Excellency as a mark of respect and esteem, will one day remind the children of the liberators that their forefathers, filled with a patriotic sense of duty and the sublime love of glory, bore in triumph the arms of Colombia to the frigid and lofty summits of Potosi.

"He will also place at the feet of Your Excellency the four Spanish flags of the provinces of upper Perú. They were the

[1] O'Leary.—Same work.

emblems of the vassalage and slavery in which these regions were kept by the descendants of Fernando VI. These provinces have now recovered their independence through the bravery, constancy, and heroism of the legions of the Republic.

"The Army presents these trophies as a fruit of its labors to the Government of its country. It is also with noble pride that our troops inform you that the enemies that oppressed the land of Manco-Capac have disappeared. From Ayacucho to Tupiza twenty-five Spanish generals have surrendered, eleven hundred commanders and officers, and eighteen thousand soldiers have laid down their arms in the battlefields and garrisons. We have redeemed from the power of tyranny a surface of four hundred leagues and two millions of inhabitants, who are now thanking Colombia for the blessings of peace, liberty, and victory which you have bestowed on them."[1]

This despatch was accompanied by another, forwarded by Sucre from Cuzco to General Santander, Vice-President of Colombia, and from which Yanes publishes the following extract:

"I have the honor of presenting to H. E. the Vice-President, in the name of the Army, five battle-flags of the veteran Spanish regiments which enslaved Perú by fourteen years of triumphs. The Army offers them to you as emblems of its obedience and esteem, and requests you will deign to accept them. *I am sending to H. E. the Liberator, the standard with which Pizzaro made his entry, three hundred years ago, into this illustrious capital of the Incas; this trophy belongs by right to the warrior who showed to the Colombian Army the road of glory and of the liberty of Perú.*"[2]

General Soublette, Minister of War, forwarded to Carácas the standard of Pizarro, as a record presented by the Liberator to his native city. To this historical gift he wished to add the sanction of the Colombian Government, and he sent the following communication to the Municipality of Carácas:

"I have the honor of presenting to the Municipality of Carácas in the name of the Government the royal Standard of Castile which

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[1] O'Leary.—Work quoted.

[2] Yanes.—"Coleccion de Documentos," etc., Vol. IV.

the Colombian army has overthrown in Perú under the leadership of H. E. the President-Liberator. The city of Carácas, as birthplace of the Liberator and an inexpugnable bulwark of liberty, is entitled to preserve within its walls this symbol of the outrages committed by the Spanish Government in the land of the Incas, which at the end of three centuries has been conquered by the illustrious American whom Carácas brought forth for the happiness of mankind. The Executive believes that the Municipality of Carácas will fully appreciate this remarkable relic which other cities would give much to possess. The Executive further hopes that in this proceeding the inhabitants of Carácas will perceive a new proof of the esteem and consideration in which they are held by this Government. It gives me much pleasure to participate in the satisfaction which the inhabitants of Carácas must feel under the circumstances, and to express to you my sentiments of consideration.—May God, etc.—Government Palace at Bogotá, January 9, 1826.—16." [1]

The President of the Municipal Council of Carácas, Don Domingo N. Spinola, under date of February 20, 1826, answered in the following terms the flattering letter of General Soublette:

"The Municipality I preside over appreciates most highly the gift it has received from the Government through the hands of Your Excellency, of the royal standard of Castile, overthrown in Perú by the Colombian army, under the leadership of His Excellency the President-Liberator. The Members of the Municipality congratulate themselves and the inhabitants of the city they represent on coming into possession of this record which will remind them both of Spanish tyranny and of the fresh glory acquired by the Liberator in the ancient empire of the Incas. I have been entrusted with the honorable duty of affirming through Your Excellency our feelings of gratitude towards the Government, and of announcing the intention of the Municipality to use these insignia in the celebration of our happy 19th of April.

"The Municipal Council also fully appreciates the special suggestions of Your Excellency, contained in your communication of

[1] Yanes.—Work quoted. Vol. V.

9th of January last, and I have been instructed so to inform you. May God protect Your Excellency."[1]

As these documents show, the Council received the standard of Pizarro on the 20th of February, 1826, and in its session of that date, whilst formulating an answer to the dispatch announcing the gift of a record so suggestive of glorious remembrances, decreed that it should be publicly exhibited at Carácas, on the next anniversary of the 19th of April. This arrangement was carried out and since that date it was preserved until the 5th of July, 1841. It was then carried in procession in the solemn civic festival of the day.

In order to describe the standard of Pizarro such as it now is, we must go back to the days when it was fully intact in Cuzco. We shall thus better be able to appreciate its actual condition when it has been destroyed partly by the action of time, partly by that of man.

What is generally called the standard of Pizarro is, strictly speaking, simply a banner or fanion, such as was generally used in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. In the days of the Florentine Republic these fanions were borne on important holidays by the President of the Republic, or some other personage of eminent dignity; hence, the name of fanion-carriers (gonfaloneros) which was given to those who had carried these banners. Later on, their use was confined to Christian churches and religious celebrations; indeed, since the first times of Christianity they had been hoisted in the churches, whenever it was considered necessary to raise troops and to summon the vassals for the defense of the buildings and of ecclesiastical possessions generally.

The primitive field of the standard of Pizarro consisted in rich damask of a scarlet color; of this first tissue only small fragments remain; two large designs made in arabesques of the fifteenth century, appear on each face of the banner. Each of them was one hundred and twenty-seven centimeters in height by one hundred and fifteen in width; the material was yellow and white satin finished in blue with borders in gold thread. One of these arabesques

[1] Yanes.—Work quoted.

still exists almost in its entirety, whilst of the other there are only some remnants. In the center of one of these arabesques there was a circle eighty centimeters in diameter, on which were embroidered the arms of Charles V., that is, those he bore at that date, 1533: the shield of Castile (two lions, two castles, and the imperial diadem) ending in two eagle heads bearing separate crowns. Of this shield there only remain two lions and one of the castles. The two eagle heads still exist but the crown of the left one has disappeared. If there were columns on the sides of the shield, or some of the cordons which appeared later in the arms of Charles V., there is nothing to be seen of them at present; an attentive examination shows that the escutcheon is a simple one compared with the later coat-of-arms of the great monarch.

When the banner arrived at Carácas, only one of the faces was complete, that of the shield; the other had been lined with white satin, now in a very deteriorated condition. In that year, 1826, there were already wanting one of the castles, the crown of one of the eagle heads and a few small fragments. The Council, therefore, gave orders to place on the banner a new field of red damask, on which the two arabesques were attached. This historical relic remained in that state for many years, but it was then finally determined to place it in a frame in order to protect it against the vandalism both of natives and foreigners, many of whom, on seeing it, wanted to carry away some souvenir of their visit

We do not know whether any picture was discovered on the standard of Pizarro when arrangements were made for placing it in a frame; what is certain is that when we took it out for the festival of 1872 we found the most interesting portion of the adornment of the celebrated banner. We are referring to the warrior made in painting and embroidery which figured at the time of Pizarro on one of the faces of the banner in the center of one of the arabesques; it appeared as if it had been concealed and attached on the reverse of the royal escutcheon.

This painting of eighty centimeters in diameter represents a warrior mounted on a handsome white horse. The steed bears rich harness and is going at full gallop. The rider has on his head a helmet adorned with plumes, his mantle is floating in the wind, the red cross of Santiago stands out in relief on the coat-of-mail which

protects his chest, and in his right hand he bears a sword, of which only the hilt now remains. The field represents a wide plain with trees and plants in relief, helmets, and warlike weapons.

Although the action of time has unraveled the silk tissue in some parts of the picture, the design, as a whole, has lost none of its merit. On examining this antique piece of work, it will be seen that the artist sketched and painted the whole scenery of the background on white satin, and then completed it so as to give reality and perspective to the figure which was to be placed in the center of the banner.

The discovery of this portion of the standard of Pizarro gives to this antique relic an extraordinary historical value. The proficiency of the artist who executed the work is shown by the fact that after having been subjected, during three centuries, to the deteriorating action of the American climate, nearly all its details are still apparent.

We may, therefore, affirm that in this record of Pizarro, now in the possession of the city of Carácas, there are two distinct epochs: the first, belonging to the fifteenth century, represented by the two arabesques, the coat-of-arms of Castile and the warrior; the second, of more modern date, which at present serves as a background for the primitive work, and which may have belonged to the vesture of some statue or altar of the cathedral of Cuzco. It is really remarkable that a work of embroidery which was damaged so long ago, and was removed from Cuzco, after having remained in that city during three centuries, should now be in such a satisfactory state of preservation, when it is a well-known fact that the banners of Gonzalo Pizarro, placed on the tomb of President Gasca, in Vallalolid, in 1567, as a trophy of Gasca's remarkable work of pacification in Perú, have long since fallen into dust.

Our distinguished friend, the celebrated Peruvian academician, Don Ricardo Palma, so well known for his accuracy in everything connected with the history of his country, solves three questions concerning the Conquistador Pizarro at the beginning of the fourth series of his remarkable *Tradiciones*. One of them refers to the description and existence of the war-flag which the conqueror bore to Perú. "After the execution of Atahualpa," says the historian, "Don Francisco Pizarro moved on Cuzco, and it is our belief that

his triumphal entry into the venerable capital of the Incas took place on the 16th of November, 1533.

"The standard borne on that occasion by his ensign, Jeronimo de Aliaga, was of the kind which is called by some a banner (gonfalon). On one of its faces of scarlet-colored damask were embroidered the arms of Charles V.; on the other, of yellow damask tissue, was represented the Apostle Saint James (Santiago), in an attitude of combat, mounted on a white horse, bearing a shield, a cuirass, and a helmet adorned with plumes or feathers, a red cross apparent on his chest, and with a sword in his right hand." [1]

This description agrees with that we have given in the preceding pages of our monograph.

"When Pizarro left Cuzco to pass through the valley of Jauja and lay the foundations of the city of Lima," adds Palma, "he did not do so in war equipment and he left his banner or fanion to adorn the former temple of the sun, already transformed into a Christian cathedral. During the civil strife between the conquistadores, neither Almagrists nor Gonzalists, Gironists nor Royalists, ventured on bringing it out to the fray and it remained on the altar as a sacred record."

Our reason for going at some length into these details is that we shall have to quote them at the end of this monograph.

Who is the personage represented by the warrior delineated on the standard of Pizarro? Is this picture an effigy of the Apostle Saint James (Santiago), the inseparable companion of the Spanish armies, or is it simply an ornamental fiction of the artist?

Herrera relates in his *Decadas* that in one of the many sanguinary struggles between Aztecs and Spaniards in the days of Hernan Cortes, the Indians, according to their own testimony, were put to rout by a knight of gigantic size, clothed in white, and mounted on a white horse. The rider attacked them sword in hand and remained invulnerable, whilst with his mouth and feet the steed inflicted on them as much injury as the rider with his sword. The Castilians told them that this knight was the apostle of Jesus

[1] Palma.—"Tradiciones."

Christ, Saint James (Santiago), whose help they invoked in battle, and whom they always found ready to come to their assistance.

Again, we are told by Garcilaso, that when, after the occupation of Cuzco, Prince Manco-Inca attacked the troops of Pizarro, the Spaniards, both men and horses, were worn out with fatigue and were on the point of being annihilated by the numerous hosts of the Inca. Then there appeared in front of the Castilians and in full view of both armies the Apostle Saint James, mounted on a white horse, bearing on his arm a shield with the insignia of the military order. He was armed with a sword which shone like lightning, and when he waved it the Indians became terror-struck and exclaimed: "Who is that figure bearing in his hand the *yllapa*," the last word meaning lightning, thunder, or flash of light. Wherever the Saint led the attack, the infidels fled, and at length the arms of Castile remained victorious in the fray.

The same apostle appeared to the Spaniards blockaded within the walls of Cuzco, when their position was endangered by the incendiary balls which the Indians were throwing on the edifices of the sacred city. During the conquest of Cundinamarca, Francisco Cesar's command was attacked on all sides by an army of Indians in the valleys of Popayan and Cali. The enemy was pressing hard the little group of Spartans, when their chief called for help on the apostle, who immediately appeared on his white horse, and spread disorder and death in the ranks of the enemy.

There is an explanation for these superstitious traditions and for the war-cry of Santiago which electrified the Spanish armies. History relates that once, when King Don Ramiro I., in 843, was battling against the Moorish King Abderraman, in the field of Albelda, the army of the Castilian monarch was nearly destroyed when night put an end to the conflict. Don Ramiro had sought shelter at the foot of the neighboring hill of Clavijo, when the Apostle Saint James, who was watching while all slept, ordered him to resume the conflict on the morrow, and promised him the victory. A simple narrative of the apparition was the only exhortation the King required to encourage his men. They all redoubled their efforts, and being already secure of heaven, considered themselves certain of earthly success. In place of the drums sounds the clarion-blast of the invincible name of Santiago; the apostle invoked

places himself at the head of the army; the Spaniards behold him mounted on a white horse, bearing a sword in one hand, with the other carrying a standard, showing a red cross on a white field, and charging the barbarians at full speed. Repeating the battle-cry of *Santiago* and *a ellos* (at them), with the "son of lightning" leading them against the Crescent, they charge with irresistible might, massacre seventy thousand Moors, and take Albelda, Clavijo, and Calahorra. Records of the victory remain on the field up to this day. From that time forward the Cortes of the kingdom decided that a portion of the military spoils should be reserved for the Saint, holding him as present on the battlefield not only as a Saint, but also as a combatant."

But what explanation can we give for the origin of this superstitious belief amongst the Indians? To render possible the hallucination which produced such terror among them, it is necessary they should have seen previously the effigy of the Apostle; otherwise we could not account for such a phenomenon. The delineation we discovered on the standard of Pizarro solves the enigma, and shows that the fancied apparition of a warrior mounted on a white horse originated in the banner borne by the troops of Pizarro. It is highly probable that on the standards and flags of Cortés and others of the many invaders of America, there was also a representation of the Apostle. This figure, visible to the Indians in the midst of the fight, probably contributed with the prowess of the Castilians to produce the illusion amongst the crowded hosts of natives. The Inca Garcilaso, a witness of all these events, bears out our explanation. This chronicler relates that, being present as a child at a religious festival in Cuzco, he saw on one of the walls of the church a picture of the Apostle Saint James. He was mounted on a white horse, bearing a flaming sword in his right hand, and a multitude of corpses were lying on the ground beneath him. On seeing him the Indians exclaimed, "It was a figure like this which overcame us in this place," and they were doubtless alluding to the effigy represented on the standard of Pizarro.

All this goes to show that the standard actually in the possession of the City of Carácas is the one which Pizarro bore at the occupation of Cuzco, and that the effigy of the Apostle which appears on one of its faces, is the same which struck terror and

death amongst the Peruvian Indians in 1533. As it has remained down to our own times, we may conclude it was not used in the civil wars which followed the capture of Cuzco, and in which both sides when victorious took possession of the standards and flags of their opponents.

Thus it was to be. It was written that the glorious standard of the first conqueror of America was to fall as a historical trophy into the hands of the first of American liberators, and that from the sacred city of the Incas, where it had been preserved during three centuries, it was to be transported to the birthplace of Bolivar. The City of Carácas will know how to preserve it with the just pride inspired by deeds of prowess and bloodstained sacrifices. Besides, it must not be forgotten that the former name of the capital of Venezuela was Santiago de Leon de Carácas.

When the standard of Pizarro arrived at Carácas in 1826, the political hatreds against Spain had not yet had time to cool down ; thus it happened that in the first civic festival celebrated in the capital after the reception of this valuable guerdon, it was dragged through the streets of the city, in order to display the hatred then existing against the former masters of the country.

Eighteen years later, in 1842, when the mortal remains of Bolivar arrived on their native soil, the standard of Pizarro was placed with respect at the base of the mausoleum where rest the ashes of the American hero.

After a new period of thirty years, this historic record of the Castilian conquest was borne during the festival of October the 28th, in the center of a group representing both official and unofficial Spain and surrounded by the descendants of the liberators. In this group were united the flags of Spain and Venezuela.

What a contrast! In the first of these epochs everything was subordinated to impulsive passion ; the second commemoration was a homage offered by the descendants to the glory of their progenitors ; the last was a family reconciliation, a historical record of all the epochs, synthetizing one same glorious origin, drowning all resentments and uniting all glories in a fraternal embrace.

The standard of Pizarro is not a war trophy ; it is a family record, a proud guerdon of our race, a relic of an immortal epoch; it

is a symbol of union between two great nations issued from the same stock, and whose glories are common to both.

After having gone through these particulars concerning the standard of Pizarro—this relic of the Castilian conquest—presented to Bolívar by the victor of Ayacucho, and by Bolívar to his native city, where it is at present, it now remains for us to examine a point of historical criticism connected with the subject. South American chronicles and traditions mention several flags or banners which received seventy years ago the name of *Standard of Pizarro.* There is the one presented to General San Martin by the Municipal Council of Lima, then the one given to the Liberator by General Sucre, and lastly, those which are at present in the museum of Bogotá, and which the Colombian Government received from the victor of Ayacucho. Which of these banners is the real standard of Pizarro? Were there several or is there only one? If the second alternative is correct, where is it to be found? These are the questions we are going to investigate. Eighteen years have elapsed since we published our pamphlet entitled, *The Standard of Pizarro,* and the documents we have been enabled to consult since then will be of considerable assistance to us.

For centuries it never occurred to any one to remove the standard of Pizarro, deposited in 1533 on an altar of the cathedral of Cuzco, after the occupation of the city by the conqueror of Perú. There it rested, untouched by the conquistadores, who did not venture to bring it forth in their internecine wars, until General San Martin, liberator of the South, arrived in 1821 in the capital of Perú. Spaniards and natives, monuments, wealth, standards and flags, representative of past grandeur, all were affected by the new heralds of liberation, who, from the north and south, were converging on the land of the sun for the purpose of establishing a new domination and overthrowing the power of Spain.

The standard of Pizarro is mentioned for the first time in the farewell proclamation of San Martin to the Peruvians in 1822. The following passage appears in it: "I was present at the Declaration of Independence of the States of Chili and Perú. I have in my possession the *standard which Pizarro bore to enslave the empire of the Incas.* I have ceased to be a public man but by this

alone I am rewarded with usury for ten years of revolution and war."

A historian, unfriendly to San Martin, thus relates how this valuable guerdon came into his possession : "Although not a robbery of money, still it was a robbery San Martin committed in obtaining from the Municipality the standard of the conquest. It had been kept in the city because the importance of this record rendered it worthy of preservation. He asked for it under the pretext of examining it, and as soon as it was in his power, he appropriated it as if it were a trophy captured from the enemy. He then required of the Municipality to present it to him as a gift. . . ."[1]

Leaving on one side the opprobrious words of the historian, the gift solicited by San Martin was as legitimately obtained as if the Municipality had offered it to him spontaneously. Besides, the fame of San Martin and the services he rendered to the Peruvian fatherland, place him above all these petty accusations, which originate in political hatreds. We may leave the general in possession of a gift he held until his death, when he bequeathed it to the Peruvian Republic.

Shortly after the departure of San Martin for Europe, the cannon of Ayacucho shattered the remnants of Spanish power and the flag of Colombia waved on the turrets of the ancient cities of the Incas. Modern America was taking the place of the past. As to the standard of Pizarro found in Cuzco and presented by Sucre to Bolívar, all we have to say about it is consigned in the preceding pages.

There were, therefore, at that time two banners, each designated as the standard of Pizarro : the one given in 1821 to General San Martin by the Municipality of Lima and that presented to General Sucre by the Municipality of Cuzco in 1824. Again, when the gifts sent by the victor of Ayacucho to the Liberator and the Colombian Government arrived at Bogotá towards the end of 1825, the collection of flags and banners had received the general denom-

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[1] Pruvonena.—"Memorias y Documentos para la Historia de la Independencia del Perú, etc." ; Paris, 1858, 2 vols. This work is attributed to Riva Aguero.

ination of *Flags of Pizarro.* The following sonnet of the well-known and distinguished José Fernandez Madrid, celebrating these valuable historical guerdons, further tends to support this assertion:

"These are the banners which one day waved in the hands of Pizarro: These are the banners which once witnessed in Cajamarca the most abominable treason.

"Records of oppression and tyranny, for three centuries they insulted Perú, and the liberators found them dyed with innocent blood.

"Souvenirs of an insolent despot, bloodstained banners of Pizarro, which victory gave into the hands of Bolívar,

Now for ever overthrown and humiliated at the feet of independent Colombia, once the opprobrium of Perú, you will now be its glory." [1]

Thus the poet speaks of the collection of flags, banners, and pennons which the Government of Colombia exhibited simultaneously with the standard of Pizarro, before the latter was forwarded to Carácas, in February, 1826.

We now come to what happened in the year 1844, when General San Martin died in France. In a codicil of his testament, made at Paris, on January 23, 1844, the following clause appears: "It is my will that the standard which the Spanish bandit Pizarro

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[1] Estas son las banderas que algún día
En manos de Pizarro tremolaron,
Estas en Cajamarca presenciaron
La más abominable alevosía.

Recuerdos de opresion y tiranía
Al Perú tres centurias insultaron,
Y los libertadores las hallaron
Tintas en pura sangre todavía.

Monumentos de un déspota insolente,
Banderas de Pizarro ensangrentadas,
Que rindió ante Bolívar la victoria,

A los pies de Colombia independiente,
Para siempre abatidas y humilladas
Oprobrio del Perú, seréis su gloria!

Yanes—Colleccion de Documentos—1826.

waved in the conquest of Perú, be returned to the said Republic." Shortly afterwards, Dr. Galves, representative of the Peruvian Republic in France, surrendered the guerdon to the Government of General Pezet, at Lima.[1] This legacy shows that San Martin died in the belief that the standard he had possessed was really that of the conquistador Pizarro.

We have already described the standard of Pizarro which is in the hands of the Municipality of Carácas, and our description agrees with that of the historian Palma, in the fourth series of his *Tradiciones*. Now, it is quite certain, that amongst the different objects forwarded to the Government of Bogotá by General Sucre, some of the banners in the possession of various Peruvian municipalities in the days of Fernando VI., were war-flags of recognized historical value. An article published in the *Gaceta de Colombia*, of September 4, 1825, speaks of them as follows: "The Government has seen with satisfaction in its Hall of Despatches, the standard of Castile and the royal banners of the province of the upper Apure. They will remind us in the future of the calamitous epoch of the subjugation of South America, and they will simultaneously be for whoever sees them a record of the glory of the Emancipation and of the heroic prowess of the sons of Colombia in the land of the Incas. These trophies are accompanied by others no less worthy of the Army which forwarded them, *i. e.*, the flag of the colonel of the regiment of Burgos, bearing the arms of that province and those of Cuzco, which are a Sun with the inscription: *Civitas solis vocabitur una.* The flag of the battalion of Huamanga, magnificently embroidered in gold and silver. Another belonging to the *Cruz de Borgoña*, with these inscriptions in the corners: *The battle of Ayohuma recovered the provinces of Potosi and Charcas on the 14th of November*, 1813; *it washed out the affront of Tucuman, and appears on the plains of Vicapupió: first of October*, 1813. The flags of battalions Nos. 1 and 2, of the regiment of Chasseurs of Extremadura, as richly adorned as that of the battalion of Huamanga; and the royal seals, large and small, of the Royal Audience and Chancellery of Cuzco." [2]

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[1] Herrera.—"El Album de Ayacucho."

[2] Groot.—"Historia eclesiastica y civil de Nueva Granada." Vol. III.

As can be seen, none of these banners or pennons is in any way similar to the standard in the possession of the city of Carácas. All that now remains is to investigate the origin of the standard which belonged to San Martin, *i. e.*, the one which was in the city of Lima, and compare it with the one which was at Cuzco, and which is now the property of the city of Carácas. This investigation will show the date of each and what coat-of-arms appears on them respectively.

We shall now go into the question.

A little more than two years ago (in April, 1891), the remains of Francisco Pizarro, the conqueror of Peru, were exhumed from the vaults of the Cathedral of Lima, and deposited in one of the chapels of that church. This change was made in accordance with the orders of the Government. In the *Boletin Municipal*, No. 691, bearing the date of July 2, of the same year, are inserted some ancient documents referring to the foundation and settlement of Lima, on the 13th of January, 1535, and also to the escutcheon granted to the city by Charles V., etc., on the 7th of December, 1537. We have been able to inspect these documents through the courtesy of our old friend Don Ricardo Palma. The decree of concession of the seal is as follows:

"It is our will and pleasure that now and for ever in perpetuity, the said City of the Kings have and hold for its known arms an escutcheon on a blue field with three royal crowns of gold, forming a triangle, and above them a star of gold, each one of the three points of said star touching one of the crowns, and on the fringe in letters of gold the inscription *Hoc signum vere regum est;* on a red field and as a stamp and device, two black eagles respectant, each with a royal crown of gold, and holding an I and a K, which are the first letters of our proper name, and above said letters a star of gold, all as herein figured and delineated: We give said arms to the said City of the Kings for its own, and to be known and designated as its own at present and for ever in the future as has been said. We give to said city license and faculty to bear them and place them on its pennons, seal, and coat-of-arms, buildings, and other parts and places at will, and as may be found suitable, and in the way, form, and manner they are borne and placed in the

cities of our kingdoms of Castile, to which we have given arms and device, etc.[1]

This is the coat-of-arms which figures in the standard presented to General San Martin by the City of Lima. This standard is the one which, after 1537, the date of the foundation of Lima, was borne in the solemn festivals, civil and religious, of the City of the Kings. Don Ricardo Palma, who examined it under the Administration of Pezet, gives a description of it which agrees perfectly with the foregoing extract of the degree of concession : "The people of Lima," says the illustrious academician, "improperly named this banner the standard of Pizarro, and without due examination accepted it as the war-flag borne by the Spaniards during the conquest. The error was transmitted from generation to generation without being refuted, and finally became traditional and historical." [2]

So remarkable is the power of tradition when supported by length of time, that one of the writers in the above-mentioned *Boletin*, whilst recommending the acquisition of certain historical relics of the conqueror of Perú, refers amongst them to the coveted standard and says : "The standard of Pizarro was left to the Peruvian Republic by General San Martin in a clause of his will, made at Bologna in the year 1850 (*sic*) ; it was transmitted to the Government of General Pezet and taken from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs in one of the many political riots of the time. This standard is, in all probability, either in Lima or in Spain, and it would be easy to get it back by paying a suitable price for it."

We have, ourselves, come in contact with this struggle between truth and erroneous tradition in Caráeas. We have proved categorically that it was not the famous corsair, Francis Drake, who pillaged the capital of Losada in 1595, that the French did not sack the same capital in 1679, and lastly, that on the 5th of July, 1811, no Act of Independence was ever signed. Yet there are persons who continue asserting the truth of these statements, although emphatically contradicted by critical and philosophical examination based on real documents and not on adventurous conjectures.

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[1] *Boletin Municipal*, número 691, Lima 25 de julio de 1891.

[2] Palma.—"Tradiciones Peruanas."

The previous pages show conclusively that the standard willed by San Martin to the Peruvian nation was that which belonged to the City of the Kings after its foundation in 1537; that the flags and banners sent by General Sucre to the Colombian Government, and which are actually in the Museum of Bogotá, belong, some to the last century and others to various Spanish regiments which took part in the Peruvian campaigns, and, lastly, that the standard presented to Bolívar by General Sucre, which during centuries had been preserved with veneration in the cathedral of Cuzco and on whose faces figure the effigy of Saint James and the escutcheon of Charles V., is the real standard of Pizarro. The municipality of Carácas is in possession of this record of Castilian conquest in Perú.[1]

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[1] In the plate which accompanies our monograph the engraver has sought to recall two epochs: The first is that in which the primitive ground of red silk-damask existed; of this there only remain filaments on the borders of the mutilated yellow and blue arabesques. The second is that of the actual state of the medallions, in which the fragments of the effigy of Saint James and of the escutcheon of Charles V. are visible. The mutilation of this work of art began a long time ago: Bolívar himself sent to Mr. Canning one of the castles of the escutcheon of Charles V. Other fragments of the standard of Pizarro are to be found in various European museums.

THE SWORD OF BOLÍVAR.

THE glorious sword which Perú presented to the Liberator in 1825, after the victory of Junin, is certainly the most remarkable amongst the many historical records of that great man, existing in South America.

This souvenir has been preserved during forty-two years, and it is to be exhibited for the first time to the people of Carácas in the sumptuous festival which the birthplace of Bolívar is preparing in honor of the American hero. The family of the Liberator have kept this sword with great care and without allowing it to become visible to the public. On this single and solemn occasion they are willing to entrust it to other hands for a few hours. They will thus contribute their share to this great patriotic celebration of October 28, 1872, when the rising sun will be saluted with hymns of rejoicing and enthusiasm.

Our colleagues of the Commission have entrusted us with the preparation of the historical catalogue of the different objects which belonged to the Liberator and which are to be publicly exhibited on the tomb of the national hero and in the hall of the Chamber of Deputies. We wish, however, to anticipate the auspicious day and give at once to the inhabitants of Carácas an idea of the magnificent gift by which grateful Perú desired in past days to express its thanks to the father of Colombia. This glorious sword will be borne in the midst of those remains of the liberating army which have survived the martyr of Santa Marta. Carácas, on witnessing it in its streets, will see in it a symbol of glory, of the gratitude of populations, and of the justice of history illustrating the memory of its beloved sons.

The sword was made in Lima in 1825 by Chungapoma, under the direction of Señor C. Freyre. When, some years ago, a brother of Señor Freyre was Minister of Perú in Venezuela, he informed the family of Bolívar that his brother had spent a large sum on the jewels he had bought for the purpose of adorning the hilt of the sword. This is an explanation of the fact that all the sets of brilliants which appear in this work of art are of the same size and

of equal value. The scabbard is made in its entirety of massive gold of eighteen carats; one of its sides is embossed with varied and graceful designs. On its upper part, on the borders of the opening through which passes the blade, figures the following inscription *C. Freyre—Comisionado—Año de* 1825; round the lower part is entwined a snake, nine inches in length and with eyes made of rubies. The weight of the scabbard is about seventy-four ounces.

The blade of damascened steel bears on the reverse the following inscription: *Simon Bolívar—Union y Libertad—Año de* 1825; and on the obverse: *Libertador de Colombia y del Perú—Chungapoma me fecit en Lima.* These different inscriptions are separated by allegorical devices, such as trophies of arms, laurels, genii, etc., etc.

The guard of the sword is of surpassing artistic merit. A handsome bust of massive gold, representing the genius of liberty, and wearing the Phrygian cap, forms the pommel. On examining this bust, the observer will be struck by the beauty of the cap made of brilliants gracefully put together; specially remarkable is the upper brilliant of 3½ carats, which is surrounded by a crown of laurel composed of diamonds. The cap contains one hundred and fifty-five stones.

The hilt is formed by two pyramids of massive gold, truncated, and united at the base. Each of the pyramids has four sides, and on all appear various artistic designs. On one of the sides of the upper pyramid appears the escutcheon of Perú, in relief; above it is a crown of laurel garnished with thirty brilliants. On the reverse side is designed a trophy of arms supported by two horns of abundance, in relief, which pour out a cascade of brilliants. On the other two sides two clusters of palms hang from each extremity and join in the middle simulating a rain of falling stars.

On the obverse of the lower pyramid is the following dedicatory inscription: *El Perú a su Libertador,* on an unpolished ground and with letters in relief; the whole surrounded by a ribbon made of thirty brilliants. On the reverse figure a laurel and olive in relief, on an unpolished ground and surrounded by a ribbon made of thirty brilliants; on the other two sides are festooned clusters of stones.

The junction of the two pyramids at the base is covered by a

ribbon of eighteen brilliants of the first order, on which the light plays in a way which excites admiration ; at the extremities there are also two ribbons of brilliants as remarkable as those of the central part. The light effects produced by the whole are surprising.

One of the bars of the cross has on each side a brilliant of the first order ; on the opposite bar which ends in a volute, there shines on each side a constellation of brilliants.

The shell, a work of exceeding richness, is constituted by a mass of solid gold, in the form of a shield, which attracts the eye not only by the brilliants it contains but also by the handsome sculpture which appears in its center. A group in relief of two Indians of unburnished gold support with two of their hands a lance bearing the cap of Liberty, whilst with the other two hands they carry two banners, also in relief. The plumes which adorn the heads of the Indians and the cap are of grouped brilliants, which shine like three constellations on the duller background of gold. To the right and to the left of this group there are two laurel branches garnished with brilliants, and more to the outside; and starting from the base of the branches and from the lower part of the shell, there emerge two fine horns of abundance, both enchased with brilliants ; at their extremities are two fine large brilliants of two carats each.

At the junction of the cross with the shell there is a small ribbon which contains thirty-four brilliants.

The pommel, the pyramids, the edge of the dedicatory inscription, the branches, the laurels, the rings, and the shell form a mass of more than eight hundred shining brilliants, disposed with consummate art in graceful and symmetrical designs.

From the lower part of the pommel there emerges a dragon of gold with two brilliants on the twisted tail, two rubies as eyes, and a crown of sixteen brilliants on his head ; in his mouth he bears a wreath of corn spikes mounted in brilliants and connected with another attached to one of the bars of the cross. Where the two wreathes unite to form the arch of the hilt, there appears a medallion bordered with brilliants on both sides and bearing in its center the initials S. B. superposed ; both the initials are formed of grouped brilliants.

The hasp of the belt which accompanies the sword consists in

a clasp of solid gold in the form of a rectangle, four and a half inches long and three and a half inches broad. In the center of the clasp there is a large sun in relief with thirteen rays, each of which ends in a brilliant. In the center of the sun are the initials S. B. formed by thirty-two diamonds and bordered by a garland of seventy-three brilliants. The clasp has further adornments. Almost touching the extremities of the rays of the sun there appear two festoons of laurels and palms, formed of brilliants, which start from the lower central portion of the clasp, and are joined at their further ends by a bow of rubies. Lastly the exterior outline is enveloped by a ribbon containing eighty-four brilliants. The clasp alone contains four hundred and ninety-six brilliants.

The belt consists of three fringes of scarlet bordered in gold, with three plates and three buckles of gold.

The total number of brilliants inlaid into this celebrated sword is thirteen hundred and eighty, and if we include the stones of the belt we reach a total of *one thousand four hundred and thirty-three brilliants.*

After making a full examination of this work of art Señor G. Vogler, of the well-known and respected jewelry firm of Ammé Brothers, considers it as one of the most remarkable swords existing throughout the world, on account of the richness and quality of the stones, the sculptures and the whole of the artistic work. Its exquisite design is an honor to the jeweler who made it, to the country which presented it, and to the epoch in which it was executed.

The sword of Bolívar now belongs to Señora Benigna Palácios, niece of the Liberator. In mentioning her name we take the opportunity of expressing to her our sincere thanks for the courtesy with which she kindly allowed us to inspect on a number of occasions this glorious record of the illustrious head of her family. These marks of attention are all the more gracious on her part that up to the present time only a very limited number of persons have been allowed to view the rich guerdon which will one day be possessed by Venezuela or Perú.[1]

[1] The Government of Venezuela now owns this valuable historical relic. It is now going for the first time to be on view abroad in that Exhibition in which all the nations of the civilized world will celebrate Columbus, the Discoverer of America.

WASHINGTON AT THE CENTENARY OF BOLIVAR.

It may be inquired why, in the celebration of the Centenary of Bolívar, a statue of Washington has been erected in the city whence issued the first sound of the South American revolution. In the days dedicated to national gratitude, when hundreds of cities are raising their voices in praise of the warrior who emancipated Colombian soil, what idea does the patriarch of North America symbolize amongst us?

For the first time in a city of Castilian origin the effigy of the modern Cincinnatus comes to be a bond of union between two nations of different race, customs, and language. This statue is a symbol of alliance, because Washington is not a stranger amongst us: he is the father of the whole American fatherland, the creator of the Republic in the New World. Both Americas, united by common glories on the altar of gratitude, celebrate Washington in the city which was the birthplace of Bolívar.

In seeing this festival in which the two portions of the Continent are taking part, we seem to witness two epochs and to espy the great men of old coming from the North and from the South to join hands and acclaiming Washington whilst celebrating Bolívar at the foot of our Andes washed by the waters of the Caribbean. We hear in imagination the last cannon shots of Yorktown echoed in the fields of Junin and Ayacucho. We see the generous conduct of Washington, rendering homage at the close of the contest to brave but unfortunate foes, and we remember that also on the field of Ayacucho victory was crowned with generosity. Similar courage and virtues characterize each of the two epochs; peoples separated by distance are united by the bonds of their common American nationality, of their love for those Republican institutions first established by Washington on the continent of Cabot and Columbus, first started in the South by Miranda and the forerunners of the Revolution of 1810, and finally established there by Bolívar and San Martin.

The erection of a statue of Washington during the celebration of the Centenary of Bolívar is not only a tribute to the glory of the

illustrious creator of Republican institutions: it is also a just homage to the great nation which adorns the world with its name, its industry, and the conquests of civil power. When Washington founded the Republic in the New World, he bequeathed his virtues as a citizen and a magistrate not only to the country where he was born and which was the theatre of his triumphs: he left them also to the human race, which proclaimed him honest and just and the equal of the greatest. For this have his fellow citizens summarized his worth in this eloquent sentence: "First in the hearts of his countrymen."

There are coincidences which bring nations nearer to each other in history. Bolívar comes into the world in 1783, the year in which the work accomplished by Washington is recognized by the great European Powers. He is born at the time when Spain, which had contributed on the battlefield to the triumph of the Republic, recognized it officially. She thus unwittingly pointed out the way to her colonists of the New World, who some years later, in their turn, founded American nationalities. Thus, one hundred years after the first triumph had received the seal of international treaties, we are celebrating Washington in the birthplace of Bolívar.

It was on the very fields where Washington won his laurels that Miranda, the friend of Hamilton, Fox, and Lafayette began the work of South American emancipation. It was the same banner, planted by Miranda in 1806 on the Corian coast, where, for the first time, the name of Colombia was heard—it was that same banner which Bolívar bore on the fields of Boyaca and Carabobo, and with which he finally reached the heights of Cuzco and Potosi.

There is here a righteous historical compensation. Many cities of North America have celebrated the name of Bolívar. To express her gratitude, Venezuela has awaited the day of the centenary festival of the Liberator to erect in the city which was the birthplace of Bolívar the statue of Washington, so that it might be handed down from generation to generation, and that we might become familiar with the name of the patriarch and founder of the Republic in the New World.

Gratitude is thus added to the sentiments of international confraternity.

When the Venezuelan revolution began in 1810, it was from the United States of America we received the first war material. If the successors of Washington were unable at that time to recognize our independence, their sympathy accompanied us and enthusiastic citizens helped us as years before they had assisted Miranda. Two years later a great catrastrophe, the earthquake of 1812, overthrew the larger number of the cities of Venezuela, and to the misfortunes of war were added misery, hunger, and death. When the news of this disaster arrived in the country of Washington, the Congress of the Republic unanimously decreed that five ships loaded with flour should be sent to Venezuela, so that it might be distributed amongst the most needy of the sufferers. A celebrated traveller, Humboldt, on relating this deed, characterizes it with the following eloquent words: "Such generous help was received with the liveliest gratitude; and this solemn act of a free people, this sign of national interest, of which the civilization of our old Europe shows few recent examples, seemed a precious pledge of the mutual good feeling which is always to unite the populations of the two Americas."

After many days of trials and sacrifices the Revolution fails twice, but ultimately conquers; from victory to victory Bolívar bears the banner of Colombia to the snowy peaks, to the highest inhabited regions of the Andes. An unexpected and fortunate incident then created a fresh bond of union between the two Americas and their inhabitants. One of the founders of the great Republic was then on the soil of the United States. In 1824 a unanimous vote of Congress had authorized President Monroe to invite in the name of the nation General Lafayette to visit the country. Lafayette, then in France, did not hesitate to accept this honorable and spontaneous invitation. The Government of the United States offered him a man-of-war to convey him across the Atlantic, but he preferred a merchant vessel in which he would find greater comfort, and left in the middle of July of the same year. On the 15th of August after lengthy years of absence Lafayette landed in New York on the soil of his former glory. Is there a pen which can describe the ovation which received him? The hearts of millions of men were beating in unison; thousands of cities were echoing one sentiment. The object of their enthusiasm was one man, and

the glory he represented, great and imperishable. There was a delirium of universal gratitude; two generations united in presence of one of the athletes of liberty and the effigy of Washington. Few celebrations in the history of the human race can equal this ovation; none can excel it. Lafayette was to visit all the States of the Union, and in all he was to be received with enthusiasm. From the moment he touched American soil until that of his departure his journey was to be one long triumphal procession.

In December, 1824, Congress presented to its illustrious guest $200,000 in gold and 2,000 acres of land, as a small offering from the country of Washington in remembrance of his services. In every one of the twenty-four States Lafayette was the hero of popularity; everywhere festivities, popular ovations, and the thousand voices of the Press made his name famous throughout the world.

Was the name of Bolívar pronounced during these festivities? Was there anything which showed that the deeds just consummated in South America were known and appreciated? The history of the first years of Colombia, the sanguinary character of the struggle, the sensation which the emancipation of a great continent was to cause in the civilized world, all this had reached the people of the United States. The Americans of the North had followed from afar all the vicissitudes of the drama, and during the triumphal tour of Lafayette, 1824–1825, they heard of its last and glorious act—the victory of Junin, the decisive battle of Ayacucho, and the surrender of Callao. At that date the name of Bolívar was already celebrated in history, and the people of North America gave him without hesitation the honorable title of "The Washington of South America."

More significant events were to follow. At the splendid banquet offered by Congress to General Lafayette in Washington, Henry Clay, the eminent citizen whose death in 1852 was to cause public mourning throughout the United States, spoke of Bolívar in presence of his colleagues, and we may consider his utterances as bearing an official stamp. In the midst of the enthusiasm of that magnificent reception, of which Lafayette was the sole hero, Henry Clay rose to his feet and spoke as follows: "Whilst we are peacefully enjoying in the midst of abundance and security, the benefits of the free institutions founded by the bravery and patriotism of

our forefathers and of their valiant companions here present, whilst calling to mind with freedom and satisfaction the memory of our Revolution, can we forget that our neighbors and friends on this same continent are now struggling to obtain that same freedom and independence which amongst ourselves has been so fortunately secured? No nation, no generous and disinterested Lafayette, has come to their assistance; alone and without help they have sustained their glorious cause, trusting to its justice, and with the assistance only of their bravery, their deserts, and their Andes. . . ." Clay followed by speaking in rather strong terms of Spain and its King at that time, and in conclusion proposed the following toast: "*To General Bolívar, the Washington of South America and to the Republic of Colombia.*" And more than six hundred representatives of the Anglo-American race, rose to their feet in that night of festivity and, lifting their glasses, exclaimed like one man in the presence of Lafayette: "*To Bolívar, the Washington of South America and to the Republic of Colombia.*" It was with these cordial and eloquent words that the great Republic sent its greeting to the young nationalities of South America which Bolívar had just created.

Before taking his departure for Europe, Lafayette visited the tomb of Washington at Mount Vernon. He wished to see with his own eyes the place where the American Cincinnatus spent the last years of his life, and where his mortal remains are now resting. In presence of the glorious ashes of Washington, Lafayette received from the great man's family, amongst other presents, the ribbon of the order of Cincinnato which the Liberator of North America had used. He further agreed with heartfelt pride to serve as an intermediary for presenting to Bolívar the gift which Washington's family also wished to make to the Liberator of South America. This gift consisted in a medal of gold which on one of the anniversaries of Independence the American people had presented to the Father of their country and in a medallion containing a portrait of Washington and a lock of his hair. This medallion now belongs to the Republic through a donation of General Guzman Blanco, President of Venezuela, who had received it from the nephew of Bolívar, Señor Pablo S. Clemente. The medallion is of oval form, with a maximum diameter of seven centimeters by a minimum diameter of

five centimeters. On the obverse side appears a miniature portrait of Washington, artistically executed by Steward according to the large picture painted by the celebrated Field. On the reverse is blue enamel in the center of which appears under a small oval cover of crystal the hair of the modern Cincinnatus. Around the enamel the following inscription is engraved on a gold plate:

Auctoris Libertatis Americanae in Septentrione hanc
Imaginem dat filius ejus
(*Pater patriae*)
Adoptatus illi qui gloriam similem in Austro adeptus est.

"This portrait of the founder of liberty in North America is presented by his adoptive son to him who acquired equal glory in South America."

Thus it was that the family of Washington in the name of North America and evoking the names and the glory of its illustrious chief, the Father of his country, manifested its admiration for the Washington of South America. But that which gives a special character to this American gift is that it was that Lafayette, so celebrated in the annals of modern liberty, who was entrusted with the pleasing duty of transmitting to Bolívar the precious guerdon. The Liberator received from Lafayette the following letter through the intermediary of the Colombian legation in Washington:

GENERAL LAFAYETTE TO GENERAL BOLÍVAR, PRESIDENT-LIBERATOR.

WASHINGTON CITY, *September* 1, 1825.

TO THE PRESIDENT-LIBERATOR:

SIR—The family of General Washington could not have shown in a better way their appreciation of my filial and religious affection for his memory. To-day a most honorable duty has been entrusted to me. It was with the utmost pleasure I recognized the exact resemblance of the portrait, for I would rather offer this record of my fatherly friend to General Bolívar than to any man living or to any of those who are famed in history. What more can I say to the great citizen whom America has saluted with the

title of Liberator, a name confirmed by the Old and the New World, and who, whilst endowed with a power equal to his disinterestedness, yet bears in his heart the unreserved love of liberty and a sincere affection for the Republic. However, the public testimonials of your kindness and esteem authorize me to present you with the personal congratulations of a veteran of our common cause. I am soon to take my departure for another hemisphere, but I shall follow with my sympathy the glorious termination of your labors and the course of that solemn assembly of Panama, in which will be consolidated and completed all the principles and all the interests of the independence, liberty, and policy of America.

Receive, Mr. President-Liberator, the homage of my profound and respectful attachment.

LAFAYETTE.

Together with this courteous letter, the Liberator received the following despatch from the Minister Plenipotentiary of Colombia in Washington:

JOSÉ MARIA SALAZAR TO H. E. THE PRESIDENT OF COLOMBIA, GENERAL SIMON BOLÍVAR.

NEW YORK, 1825.

SIR—The family of the illustrious Washington offers Your Excellency a gift worthy both of Your Excellency and of itself. General Lafayette has been chosen as the respected intermediary for forwarding it and has placed it in my hands together with the annexed letters which I have the honor of enclosing.

I do not know what is to be most highly valued in this manifestation of esteem for the person of Your Excellency, the act of courtesy itself or the delicacy shown in the way of performing it. A medal of gold, received by the Father of the Independence of North America after the surrender of Yorktown, which put an end to the Revolutionary War, and presented to Your Excellency after the day of Ayacucho, which must have closed our own contest—a portrait containing a portion of the hair which covered the head of the hero of the North—are objects of inestimable worth. And the value of the homage is doubled if we consider that you are receiving these gifts from the very family of Washington, and through the hands of a friend and companion of Washington, now the object of the veneration and love of this happy nation which he helped to create with his valor and his sword.

General Layafette writes to you that "he would rather offer this record of his fatherly friend as a token of esteem to General Bolívar, than to any man living or to any of those who are famed

in history." Both by their own meaning and the quality of the person who enunciates them, these words are more than equal to a lengthy panegyric. The expressions of Mr. George Washington P. Custis are no less flattering, when, in the name of the illustrious family he represents, he suggests to Your Excellency "that his family has preserved these guerdons until there came a second Washington who was to be their owner." This idea of Mr. Custis identifies, as it were, the copy with the model and its expression constitutes a sentiment full of force and moral beauty. The two letters addressed to Your Excellency and containing these ideas, have been published in the United States. They have been received with applause by this nation which is both great and just, which on every fitting occasion manifests its esteem for you and designates you as the Washington of the South, a title which comprises the highest praise with which it can honor you.

May Your Excellency, therefore, accept these tokens and may they be preserved in your family as a precious guerdon, to be alienated only for a motive like the present one, in favor of some future hero-Liberator of his country, and who will have made military glory promote civil order. When peace will crown the work of justice, and when Your Excellency will have received the reward it has requested from its country as a compensation for its sacrifices, the repose of honorable retirement, thus assimilating the valleys of Aragua to Mount Vernon, may Your Excellency place these valuable guerdons in the most distinguished place of your country residence and engrave below them the following inscription:

"They belonged to the most virtuous of heroes: they were gifts of his family and were received through Lafayette."

I am, with distinguished consideration, Your Excellency's obedient servant, JOSÉ MARÍA SALAZAR.

These letters only reached the Liberator on the 26th of March, 1826, six days after his having answered a first letter of Lafayette, in which the latter had recommended to him one of his countrymen. Bolívar, however, had already heard through the newspapers of the gift which the family of Washington was forwarding to him through the intermediary of the illustrious French General. He did not hesitate, therefore, in his answer to refer as follows to the present he had not yet received:

BOLÍVAR TO GENERAL LAFAYETTE.

LIMA, *March* 20, 1826.

GENERAL—I have had the honor of seeing, for the first time,

the characters traced by that hand which has conferred such benefits on the New World. I owe this honor to Colonel Mercier, who has handed me your much appreciated letter of October 15th of last year. Through the public newspapers I have learnt with the greatest pleasure that you have had the kindness to honor me with a gift of precious guerdons from Mount Vernon. Through your hands I am to receive the portrait of Washington, a relic of his person, and one of the tokens of his glory, in the name of the family of the great citizen, of the first-born son of the New World. No words can express the full value which my heart attaches to this present, and to the motives for which it was made, and which are so glorious for me. The honor conferred on me by the family of Washington is greater than any I could have hoped for, even in imagination, because Washington, presented by Lafayette, is the crown of all human rewards. He was the noble promoter of social reform, and you are the citizen hero, the athlete of liberty, with one hand serving America and with the other the Old World.

What mortal could really be worthy of the honors which you and Mount Vernon have conferred on me. My confusion is equal to the immensity of the gratitude which I offer you, joined with the respect and veneration which every man owes to the Nestor of Liberty.

With the utmost consideration I am your respectful admirer,

BOLÍVAR.

Simultaneously with the interesting letter of Lafayette, Bolívar received one from George Washington P. Custis, in which the latter forwarded to him the medal which the city of Williamsburg, the former capital of Virginia, had presented to Washington. We do not know where the guerdon is at present. On the obverse is engraved the genius of American liberty, represented by Wisdom and Bravery, with the following legend: *Virtute et labore florent Respublicae. Ciudad de Williamsburg.* On the reverse side appears an armed warrior, who, after putting aside his shield, is in the act of piercing with a lance a crowned lion which is attacking him. Above the warrior shines the American constellation of the thirteen States, with the legend: *In hoc signo vinces* and the following inscription: *En dat Virginia primum.*

The gift of this medal had more of a national than of a private character, because it assimilated so closely the two illustrious representatives of the Republican cause on the American continent. We

here insert this letter, which is remarkable both by the elevation of the sentiments expressed and the noble ideas it contains.

GEORGE WASHINGTON P. CUSTIS TO THE HONORABLE GENERAL BOLÍVAR, PRESIDENT-LIBERATOR.

August 26, 1825.

To the Liberator:

Sir—An American belonging to the family of Mount Vernon presents to you through the honorable hands of the brave Lafayette, the last surviving general of the army which founded the Independence of North America, a medal commemorative of the merit and fame of the man who was most truly great and glorious. He received it from the ancient capital of his native State and it has been preserved in his family since the war of emancipation. This token of our esteem is accompanied by a portrait of the great leader, enclosing a lock of his hair.

Deign to accept, sir, these offerings as a tribute to your virtues and to the illustrious services you have rendered to your country and to the cause of the human race. May they be preserved in the archives of liberty in South America, an object of veneration for future centuries. May they, together with the records of South American leaders, receive the homage of all Americans who with sincere and triumphant acclamations salute you as *Bolívar the Liberator, the Washington of the South.*

George Washington P. Custis.

Two months after sending his answer to Lafayette, Bolívar wrote from Lima to Washington P. Custis the following courteous letter on the 25th of May, the day on which he had received the noble gift forwarded to him by Washington's family:

BOLÍVAR TO WASHINGTON P. CUSTIS.

Lima, *May* 25, 1826.

Sir—Although the public papers had informed me of the glorious gift with which the son of the great Washington had wished to honor me, I had not up to this day received either the venerated record of the Man of Liberty or the flattering letter of his worthy descendant. To-day this estimable present has been placed in my hands. The portrait of the principal benefactor of the continent of Columbus, presented by the worthy descendant of his illustrious family through the intermediary of the citizen hero, General Lafay-

ette, is a guerdon sufficient to reward the merit of the first man in the Universe. Am I worthy of such homage? No; but I accept the gift with a pleasure and a gratitude which, together with the venerable remains of the father of America, will pass down to the most remote generations of my country; they should be the last existing in the New World.

Please to accept, sir, the most sincere and most respectful testimony of my perfect consideration.

BOLÍVAR.

To express the admiration awakened in the family of Washington by the glory and virtues of Bolívar, they had presented him with the portrait of the modern Cincinnatus, with a lock of his hair and with a medal which had been borne on the breast of the Father of his country. This, however, was not all. Through General D'Evereux, Mrs. Eliza Parke Custis sent to Bolívar under date of November 8, 1828, an autograph of Washington. It was the letter in which he bade good-bye to his wife before leaving for the seat of war in 1775. This was a delicate gift, a record of intimate love, a crown of myrtle with which the family of Washington, whilst rendering homage to Bolívar, also showed their appreciation of the home virtues of the illustrious founder of the Republic on American soil.

ELIZA PARKE CUSTIS TO GENERAL BOLÍVAR, LIBERATOR OF COLOMBIA.

NEW YORK, *November* 8, 1828.

The fame of Washington is spread throughout the entire world. Wherever his name is pronounced, it is with praise and blessings. He was the first in war, the first in peace, and will always be the first in the hearts of his countrymen.

As a public man he is spotless. His conduct in private life is a model of perfection as a husband, as a father, and as a friend.

Unequaled hero, he possessed a wife and loving friend to whom he confided the secrets of his soul. She was worthy of his love and confidence. Her virtues were the pride and admiration of all who came in contact with her. Up to the last she knew how to preserve the affection of her husband. According to the very words of Washington: *Neither time nor distance could alter his love.*

During the painful disease which bore him to the tomb she did

not for an instant leave his side, and remained by him up to the last moment.

In this hard trial she raised her prayers to heaven from the utmost depths of her soul, but silently, so as not to cause anxiety to the idol of her heart. Whilst suffering that intense pain, she desired nothing more ardently than to follow him. On closing the journey of life, she showed at the moment of death the heroic fortitude of the companion of her existence.

The name and the virtues of Washington are the property of his country. He exposed his life for it, but he always preferred home and the society of his family to the pomp and splendor of public positions. The American people, to whom he was an affectionate father, knew this, and, therefore, loved him much.

He sent the enclosed letter to his wife at the time the Federal Congress had named him commander-in-chief of the army. She kept it carefully during the whole of her life and after her death it was found amongst her papers. The letter as here given corresponds exactly with the original, and has been collated by Eliza Parke Custis, daughter-in-law of Washington.

I entrust to the hands of General D'Evereux these sad records of my beloved parents. When he arrived in the United States the Father of his country was already no more; but I introduced him to Mrs. Washington and she received him at Mount Vernon as a distinguished guest.

I have considered him as an adoptive brother. I believe that the valiant chief and ardent friend of liberty is worthy of receiving these precious relics so as to transmit them to Bolívar, the Liberator of Colombia.

These gifts are presented to the Liberator of the Republic of Colombia by the granddaughter of Mrs. Washington as a token of her esteem.

ELIZA PARKE CUSTIS.

WASHINGTON TO HIS WIFE.[1]

PHILADELPHIA, *June* 23, 1775.

MY DEAR LOVE—I am going to leave this city within a few moments, but I cannot make up my mind to take my departure without sending you a line, especially as I am not certain of having another opportunity of doing so before my arrival at the camp before Boston. In going, I commit myself entirely to the hands of Divine Providence, which has always so visibly deigned to protect

[1] Retranslated from the Spanish.—*Translator's note.*

me, even beyond my deserts. I venture to express my trust that we s all have the pleasure of being again together at least next fall. I h ıve no time to write more, for I am actually overwhelmed with farewell visits. I preserve for you the most sincere affection which neither time nor distance can ever change. With my dearest love to Jack and Nelly and remembrances to the rest of the family, I remain most sincerely

Ever yours,

G. WASHINGTON.

Two years after receiving this gift, Bolívar went to his rest in the midst of the struggles of political parties. The last remains of accumulated hatred slowly disappeared on his tomb. But a day came when the justice of men began the work of apotheosis and the first manifestation of art acted as an encouragement to the muse of History. To the noble José Ignacio París, a victim who survived the horrors of the "war unto death" (*guerra á muerte*), belongs the honor of having erected on the Andes the first statue of the Liberator in 1846. This admirer and friend of Bolívar bore the entire expense of the work of Tenerani which adorns the square of Bogotá, as a homage of gratitude to the great citizen. He presented it to the Congress of his country, New Granada, and this offering of love and duty thus became national.

It is noteworthy that when Ignacio París gave the models to the artist, he ordered that on the breast of Bolívar one medal only was to appear—that which contains the portrait of Washington and which his family presented to the Liberator.[1]

What was the motive of these instructions, of this exclusion of any other medal? It was because the effigy of Washington on the breast of Bolívar, illustrated by art, is to be eternal like Washington—like the memory of the great benefactors of the human race is eternal.

The statue of Washington on one of the squares of Carácas, the birthplace of Bolívar, unveiled during the celebration of the Centenary of Bolívar in 1883, had not yet received an official salute from the flag of the great American Republic. Then occurred one

[1] Since that date all statues, busts, and portraits of Bolivar bear the effigy of Washington.

of those incidents which bring two nations nearer together and leave in the heart of each imperishable records. The country of Washington celebrated with official solemnity and with the cordial assent of the North American people, the funeral of Páez, the leader who acquired such celebrity in the great war of Venezuela.

The courtesies which Colombia had received from the great Republic in 1826, during the lifetime of Bolívar, were to be repeated in the days when the mortal remains of Páez were transferred to Venezuela, to be deposited in the Pantheon of his country. In 1888 it became known in New York that the Venezuelan Government was sending to the great Metropolis a commission of citizens who were to conduct to Venezuela the mortal remains of the founder of civil power in that country. A numerous body of American citizens gathered spontaneously and constituted a committee under the presidency of the celebrated veteran, General Sherman. The initiative of these citizens found an echo in the nation. Widely spread by the Press, the idea was transmitted from the original committee to the Municipality of New York, from the Municipality to the Government of the State, and from there to the Central Government and Congress. Following the wishes of the nation, as expressed by President Cleveland, Congress authorized the Secretary of the Navy to place at the disposal of the Venezuelan Commissioners a vessel of the national navy in order to bear the mortal remains of Páez to the shores of the country of Bolívar. Not satisfied with rendering this homage to Venezuela in the person of one of its most distinguished men, Congress also decreed that three Senators and five Representatives should represent it in the public funeral.

Thus it happened that before the remains of Páez reached his native shores of Venezuela, they were conducted with honor by the great American nation to the pier where the sailors of the *Pensacola* received them as if they had been those of one of their own great countrymen.

"To receive when dead, from the first nation of the present time, such free and conspicuous homage, is to have deserved a high place amongst the great men of history, and under the shelter of Washington to have acquired his right to immortality as a soldier of Liberty. This is a tribute of esteem for our young mother-

country, which can point proudly to her Liberator, to whom all nations render homage, and to this son of hers, who has received from the Republicans of North America the honors reserved to men illustrious for their services to their country and to the human race.[1]

When in Carácas the festival took a purely Venezuelan character and social intercourse succeeded the sumptuous funeral ceremony, it seemed as if two free and progressive nations were becoming one. During the ceremonies the officers of the *Pensacola* took part in the enthusiasm with which the population of Carácas were saluting the effigy of Washington before rendering homage to the remains of Páez. In commemoration of common American glories, Washington was saluted by the Venezuelan flag and Bolívar by the star-spangled banner and then both by the united flags. A writer of that date says: "To show reverence to Washington is to honor American virtue, which flourishes in those souls alone fed on the love of the people and of liberty. To reverence Bolívar is to glorify American patriotism, the creator of the democratic nations of the New World."[2]

Thus was the funeral of Páez presided over by the Government of the United States far away from our shores and his mortal remains were brought to us under the shelter of the star-spangled banner of the Republic founded by the immortal Washington. This is one of the most remarkable facts of modern times and is an honor for the country of Bolívar. Thus the great men of history united in life by prolific ideas and immortal deeds, still remain united in death. Their memory is eternal in time and space.

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[1] Villanueva.—"Apoteosis de Paez." I Vol. en 8vo., 1888.

[2] Villanueva.—Work quoted.

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